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A PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY OF MALE AND FEMALE  
RECREATIONAL SOCCER PLAYERS

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A Thesis  
Presented to the  
Faculty of  
California State University  
San Bernardino

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by  
Deborah Kay Rosa-Stoffel  
September 1986

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Approved by:

  
Chairperson

September 3, 1986  
Date

## ABSTRACT

This study investigates the differences between male and female soccer players and diversity found among male players and female players. The literature has examined various aspects of sports and athletes, but little research has been conducted on the adult recreational soccer player, who is the focus of this study. One hundred and sixty-five male and 133 female athletes responded to The Personality Attributes Questionnaire (Spence & Helmreich, 1978), the athletic and social self semantic differential scales, and the Webb Scale. Methods of analyses included ANOVA s, t-tests and chi squares. Independent variables examined include sex, ethnicity, division of play, age, level of soccer playing experience and classification on the PAQ.

The results indicate that ethnicity and level of experience are important variables when examining masculinity scores of female athletes on the PAQ. Male athletes manifested a two-way interaction on the femininity scale of the PAQ for ethnicity and division of play. Androgynous classifications on the PAQ yielded the most positive self perceptions for both male and female athletes with regard to the athletic and social self

semantic differential scales. The most positive athletic self perception was indicated for female athletes who had been playing soccer for more than five years or who played in division A or who were 18 to 24 years old. With regard to the social self scales, Mexican-American males reported a more positive social self perception than did white male athletes. Female athletes indicated two-way interactions for ethnicity and age and for ethnicity and experience on the social self scale. Webb Scale analysis revealed that males endorsed a professional orientation towards sports significantly more than female athletes. Additional analyses on the Webb Scale indicated no significant differences for male athletes, however, female athletes did differ across divisions. The more skilled division of female players endorsed a more professional orientation towards sports. Explanations regarding these findings and suggestions for future research are also discussed.



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## INTRODUCTION

According to Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983) historians, physical educators, psychologists and sociologists have all been involved in the scientific investigation of sport. Volumes of research have focused upon various issues surrounding the athlete, including what precipitated his/her athletic involvement and what are the results of his/her athletic participation. The present study is intended to add to the growing body of knowledge regarding the athletic arena and the athlete.

This thesis begins with a review of the sport psychology literature, in which each topic is presented as a self contained chapter. The first subject discussed is the history of soccer which is followed by discussions on personality theories and sport, men and sport, women and sport, and comparisons of male and female athletes. The examination of previous research then focuses upon role conflict, sex roles and cross-cultural sex role issues which combine to form the backbone of and rationale for this present investigation.



## Soccer History

Association football, or soccer as it is better known in the United States, is undoubtedly the most popular outdoor, organized sport that is played on earth (Ford, 1982; Moore, 1983). According to the Los Angeles Times ("World Cup Attracts," 1982) the 1982 World Cup Final between Italy and West Germany attracted more viewers by means of television than any previous event. Ford (1982) stated "soccer is more than a game. In many societies, it is an integral part of culture, tradition and legend" (p.1). Soccer's world wide appeal is produced by the naturalness of the game and its simplicity which has developed during the course of history (Ford, 1982). The ancient Greeks, members of the Roman Empire and villagers in medieval England all participated in various forms of soccer (Ford, 1982). Initially rules were nonexistent and goals were attempted by any means available to the players. Severe injuries and even deaths were not uncommon during the games played in medieval England. King Edward III and many of England's subsequent rulers tried, albeit unsuccessfully to ban the game of soccer (Ford, 1982). Finally, in 1863 the English Football Association was formed, rules were instituted and gradually these rules were adopted by soccer enthusiasts throughout the world. Although, at this time soccer was

being played world wide, it was popular at only a few colleges in the United States.

Soccer has increased in popularity during the 20th century in the United States, but it has yet to achieve the popularity that it enjoys in Europe and South America (Ford, 1982). The United States Soccer Federation was established and acknowledged by the Federation of International Football (a world soccer organization) in 1913. American outdoor professional soccer emerged in 1966, and although the outdoor professional leagues have experienced some setbacks, the indoor soccer leagues in America are currently gaining a loyal following. One of the most powerful forces in soccer today is the number of people who are playing the game. According to Fritz Marth (personal communication, May 15, 1986) of the United States Soccer Federation, over 2.1 million people are members of the United States Soccer Federation. Soccer is being played by boys and girls from the time they are old enough to walk up until they are middle aged adults. The appeal of soccer begins during childhood, where, due to standards set by the American Youth Soccer Organization, soccer is stated to be for everyone and everyone on the team plays the game. American Youth Soccer Organization laws require each team member to play at least one half of the game. This rule is important due to the tendency of

certain coaches in youth sports to play their better players while those children who play at a lower skill level sit on the bench. Due to the physical and emotional growth (eg. gross motor skills, body awareness, team spirit, communication, dependence upon and communication with peers) which can be facilitated through soccer participation, many parents and coaches are enthusiastically encouraging girls, as well as boys to play soccer. Encouragement of both sexes to play soccer is an important aspect of the game in the United States since there are not many other team sports that are as open to females as males.

Currently, large numbers of adults, both men and women, are playing soccer at the recreational level. It is the recreational soccer player and his/her social and athletic roles, psychological masculinity and femininity and attitudes towards winning the game that this research focuses upon.

### Definition of Sport

A considerable amount of research focusing on the psychology of sport has been conducted during the recent past (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). In order to comprehend the intricate nature of sport it must be understood that sport is a social institution. Much like other institutions (eg. family, government) sport has "values, norms and regulations" which "function to regulate human behavior and channel it in socially acceptable ways" (Boutilier & Giovanni, 1983, p. 96). There are numerable definitions of sport as a social institution but the one which will be utilized in this thesis is any competitive physical activity that is directed by set regulations (Eitzen & Sage, 1978). Eitzen & Sage (1978) continue by defining three levels of sport. Informal sport, which is purely for enjoyment and is regulated by the players themselves is the first level of sport. An example of informal sport would be a pick up game of basketball at the local school court. Organized sport, the second level, consists of official rules, formal teams and regulations. Included within this level of sport participation would be little league and city recreational leagues. Corporate sport comprises the third level of sport. At this level sport is dominated by large organizations such as The National Football League or

other professional sport groups who are concerned with superior athletic performance, power and profit. Eitzen & Sage (1978) state that the first level of sport resembles play while the third level of sport is a profession for participants and others involved in corporate sport.

### Personality Theories and Sport

Copious amounts of research have been conducted in an attempt to explain, predict and describe various aspects of athletic behavior. Theories such as Freud's conflict theory of personality, where emphasis for understanding personality comes from unconscious motives, sexual or destructive needs and early life experiences, or Maslow's humanistic theory where personality centers around a hierarchy of needs ending with the need for self actualization and Sheldon's body type theory which proposes that different body types predispose one to certain personality traits have all been employed to increase understanding and insight gained from research.

In the recent past sport psychology has focused much of its efforts along the trait perspective. This theory's main assumption is that traits are enduring characteristics which can be defined and used to predict behavior in given situations (Silva, 1984). Another focus of sport research has been the situation that the individual encounters. The situational paradigm proposes

that personality can be understood in terms of the situation in which it occurs (Martens, 1976). In addition to the trait and situational theories there is the interactional perspective. This paradigm has its base in social learning theory and attempts to integrate the influence that the situation and the person have upon behavior. Characteristics of this theory include situational specificity and the individual's uniqueness (Silva, 1984). Controversy has arisen within sport psychology as to which approach will lead to the greater understanding of athletes and as to whether conclusions drawn from research based solely upon either the trait or situational perspective are valid (Cooper, 1969; Cratty, 1983; Kane, 1980; Kroll, 1976; Martens, 1976; Morgan, 1980; Singer, Harris, Kroll, Martens & Sechrest, 1977). Although all three approaches still have their supporters, it appears that the interactional approach is receiving the most attention (Kroll, 1976; Martens, 1976; Singer, et al., 1977).

#### Role of Athlete for Men

According to Scott (1975), "...American men who grew up actively participating in competitive athletics intuitively understand the role sports played in forging their manhood. Sports is our 'civilized' society's most prominent masculinity rite" (p. 2). Through participation

in sport, males assert their difference from and superiority over females as well as learn to be competitive, strong, to take risks and to control themselves and others. Participation in sport for young boys can facilitate and deepen their understanding of what it means to be a man (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

Although challenging sporting activities may currently be one of the ways that boys learn about the intricacies of manhood, in the past daily living offered countless opportunities for young boys to test their manhood and for adult males to prove theirs. However, men no longer have the boundless frontier or the spacious woods as territories in which they can take risks, be rough, compete and be independent. Life has become more urban, technical and bureaucratic. Social agencies now have the tasks of protecting our lives and our families. Women are also in the work force and contribute to the family income. Society's demand on males has changed however, the definition of masculinity has not.

Consequently, many men feel the need to preserve their hold on athletics as an expression of their strength and virility which was once manifested in daily life. Since sex roles have not been modified to meet the changing demands of today's society, men still adhere to sport as an institution that reinforces their identity and power

and many are reluctant to let women share this domain  
(Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).



### Research on Males and Sport

Research dating back to the 1950's and before has been conducted in an attempt to shed light upon the relationship between personality of the male athlete and his participation in sports. Attempts have been made to differentiate between athletes and nonathletes (Aamodt, et al., 1982; Fletcher & Dowell, 1971; Hunt, 1969; Kroll, 1967; Omizo, et al., 1979), between athletes who participate in one form of sport versus another (Aamodt, et al., 1982; Schurr, et al., 1977) between team sport athletes and individual sport athletes (Schurr, et al., 1977) and between those athletes who are successful versus those who are not. Although the results of many of these studies are inconsistent and even contradictory, delineating what has been discovered is an essential component of the quest for understanding the psychology of sport.

Many investigations have been conducted which have focused upon personality traits and athletes. Research by Kane (1978) found general athletic ability to be associated with tough-mindedness, stability and extraversion. Kroll (1967) found wrestlers to differ from established norms of the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire in that the wrestlers were more tough-minded, self-reliant, tougher and more masculine.

Fletcher & Dowell (1971) compared college freshman athletes and nonathletes on the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and found the athletes to be more aggressive and dominant and less orderly and organized than the nonathletes. Omizo, et al. (1979) investigated the differences between world class olympic contenders and undergraduate education majors manifested by responses to the 16 PF and three additional personality measures. The World class contenders were found to be reserved, critical, detached, aloof, conservative and traditional whereas the nonathletes were outgoing, easy going and liberal (Omizo, et al., 1979). Morgan (1980) reviewed the literature which compared athletes to nonathletes and found that athletes tend to be stable and extroverted, with the exception of runners, who were found to be introverted.

The Personal Profile System was utilized by Aamodt, et al., (1982) in an attempt to differentiate athletes by the type of sport that they participate in (baseball, football and track). The authors believed that the use of the Personal Profile System would lead to the discovery of distinct personality differences, which have not been consistently revealed by the 16 PF, between athletes and nonathletes and between athletes who compete in different sports. Their research disclosed that football and track

men were significantly different from nonathletes on the dominance and steadiness scales but baseball players were not different from the nonathletes (Aamodt, et al., 1982). Baseball and football players were not found to be significantly different on any of the scales nor were football and track team members while track team members were different from the baseball players only on the dominance scale (Aamodt, et al., 1982).

Research by Schurr, et al., (1977) did reveal some clear relationships between personality and sport. Schurr, et al., (1977), using the 16 PF, found team sport athletes to exhibit less abstract reasoning ability, to be more extraverted, more dependent and have less ego strength than nonathletes. Direct sport athletes, where aggression against one's opponent is possible, were shown to have less abstract reasoning ability, to be more extraverted, objective and independent than nonathletes. Team sport athletes when compared to individual sport athletes were determined to be more dependent, anxious, extraverted, emotional and less objective.

Although there is a shortage of research comparing athletes from various cultural groups, a study by Hunt (1969) compared personality traits of black and white athletes and nonathletes. Results of this investigation indicated that white athletes were significantly different

from white nonathletes in that the athletes scored higher in ascendancy, responsibility and emotional stability. Black athletes were significantly different from black nonathletes only on the responsibility item. Black and white athletes were not found to differ significantly on any of the measures (Hunt, 1969).

#### Limitations of Previous Research on Male Athletes

Although differences have been reported in the above literature review, based upon the following three issues, Carron (1980) suggests that there is no relationship between personality and sport. The first issue is the lack of consistent patterns in research results. The second issue concerns the lack of utility of the research due to the research design and the third issue focuses upon the inadequacies in the different theoretical models used to account for personality.

Difficulties in making generalizations regarding the personalities of athletes have arisen because of the diverse types of instruments implemented to measure the dependent variables. However, even when the personality instrument is held constant, a research review of 42 studies utilizing the 16 PF conducted by Hardman (cited in Carron, 1980) failed to reveal any consistent relationship between personality and athletics. In addition to this, research designs have included comparing athletes from

different sports, athletes and nonathletes, team versus individual sport athletes, the same sport athletes who attend different colleges, athletes who engage in sports with body contact and those who participate in noncontact sports and those who have varying levels of ability (Morgan, 1980). Problems have arisen due to investigators failing to adequately operationally define the independent variable (Carron, 1980; Morgan, 1980). According to Carron (1980) exception has also been taken with literature reviews which include only data which support the hypothesis that personality and sport are related. Furthermore, questions have arisen concerning the underlying personality theory adopted, sampling procedures, analysis of results and interpretation of the data of sport psychology research.

#### Role of Athlete for Women

Sport continues to be associated with the male constituents in our society and females who participate in sport are seen as women playing men's games. However, some girls and women have chosen to participate in athletics in spite of the conflicts with traditional feminine sex role expectations or negative social sanctions. According to Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983) the female athlete is different in two ways. Due to her interests in sports, she is a special kind of woman and

because she is a woman she is a special kind of athlete. Oftentimes athletic females have chosen sports that focus on beauty, grace and style of movement, ones that do not involve body contact with an opponent (Malumphy, 1968), are individual rather than team sports (Snyder & Kivlin, 1975), or have chosen to attach feminine artifacts to their sport uniform (Harris, 1980).

#### Research on Women and Sport

Although some of the studies on women and sport may be fraught with similar problems encountered by researchers on males and sport, it is important to summarize the findings. Generalizations from Malumphy's (1968) research were limited by the small sample size (77 subjects) and by the geographical area (Ohio) from which the sample was drawn. However, keeping these limitations in mind, she found that individual sport athletes were less anxious, more venturesome, tough-minded and extroverted than nonathletes and were less anxious, more extraverted and more venturesome than team athletes. Peterson, et al. (1967) used the same instrument (Cattell's 16 PF) and had a larger sample size but found individual sport athletes to be more impulsive, adventuresome, sensitive, introverted and self sufficient than team sport athletes. No consistent differences were found between the two studies regarding the differences

between individual and team sport athletes using the same instrument.

In another study which employed the 16 PF, Renfrow & Bolton (1981) found significant differences on physiological variables between athletes and nonathletes, but stated that no significant differences were found between athletes and nonathletes on the personality measures. However, the athletes were found to be more conscientious, less inhibited, more suspicious, less imaginative and more controlled when compared to the norms for college women (Renfrow & Bolton, 1981). Comparisons between their total sample (107 athletes, physical education majors and physical education class students) and the norms for college women revealed differences similar to the ones discussed above (Renfrow & Bolton, 1981).

Balazs (1975), using the Edwards Personal Preference Scale and a biographical inventory, studied 24 outstanding female athletes and found them to be essentially similar to the normal population. The two exceptions were that the athletes scored high on autonomy and achievement. This study was limited by sample size and self-selection, which restricts generalizations that can be drawn regarding outstanding female athletes.

Snyder & Kivlin (1975) compared athletes to

nonathletes and gymnasts to basketball players on measures of psychological well-being and body image. They found a strong positive relationship between athletic participation and three measures of psychological well-being. The athletes also indicated more positive feelings toward their bodies than did the nonathletes. When comparisons were drawn between the gymnasts and the basketball players, the results were ambiguous. This research was replicated in Australia and India and the results indicated cross-cultural similarities between athletes and their psychological well-being.

Despite the information discussed above, after reviewing the literature conducted from a trait perspective, Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983) found little support for the propositions that female athletes differ from nonathletes, that team athletes differ from individual athletes, that different sports attract individuals with different personalities, that successful athletes differ from unsuccessful ones or that male athletes differ significantly from female athletes. Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983) propose that research conducted along the trait perspective should be abandoned and that research in sport psychology should be pursued along a different paradigm which utilizes multi dimensional informational gathering techniques.



### Comparisons of Male and Female Athletes/Nonathletes

Dowd & Innes (1981) attempted to identify personality differences on the 16 PF and relate those differences to various types and levels of sport. Male and female athletes with a high level of achievement were found to be more intelligent, more experimenting and more conscientious than lower achieving athletes. This study also indicated that team athletes exhibited a higher level of ego resilience than did individual sport athletes (Dowd & Innes, 1981). Another study which examined male and female athletes who were involved in individual, team-of-two or larger team sports was conducted by De Man & Blais (1982). Those individuals who tend to be socially oriented were found to be involved more in team sports than in individual sports. High levels of self-esteem were found among male individual sport athletes and female team sport athletes (De Man & Blais, 1982).

In a study which utilized an interactionalist approach King & Chi (1979) systematically examined sex role, college social system, athletic social system and individual personality. King & Chi (1979) contend that inconsistent findings concerning the relationship between personality and athletics has occurred because researchers have examined only a particular athletic system and ignored the larger social system of which the athletic

social system is a part. In their study, King & Chi (1979) examined four samples of athletes and nonathletes from three different private colleges; two samples of female athletes and nonathletes and two samples of male athletes and nonathletes. Their data indicated:

athletic participation and type of athletic participation are still important variables in understanding personality variations, but that the influence of these variables depends upon the sex of the athlete and the college social system of which the athletic system is a part...the effects of sex and college system appear to be the major sources of personality variation (p. 144).

The instruments used in this study were the Cattell 16 PF personality inventory and the BEM Sex-Role Inventory. King & Chi (1979) found that the type of college one attends, such as all male, all female or co-ed, effects the types of differences found between athletes and nonathletes and team versus individual sport athletes. At the female college, group sport athletes and nonathletes differed more than did individual sport athletes and nonathletes. In contrast to the female college sample, the sample from the co-ed college differences between the individual sport athletes and the nonathletes were greater than those between group sport athletes and nonathletes. Examination of the co-ed college male athletes showed individual sport athletes to be more similar to nonathletes than were group sport athletes, while at the male college, group sport

athletes were more similar to nonathletes than were individual sport athletes. Athletes, regardless of sex were found to be more conscientious, tough-minded, forthright, posed and masculine than nonathletes. Both male and female group athletes scored higher on femininity than did individual sport athletes and male athletes were found to be more feminine than male nonathletes.

King & Chi's (1979) research illuminated and expanded upon the interplay between personality and sport participation. The discovery that personality, type of sport participation, sex of athlete and college social system are all major sources of personality variation was extremely important. Perhaps the failure to separate these variables in past research has led to many of the conflicting and confusing results which may be found in the sport psychology literature. The authors believe that other factors, such as socialization, parental encouragement, social class, past and present interest and activities could also be items of theoretical relevance (King & Chi, 1979).

#### Role Conflict for Male and Female Athletes

As a human being, there are many culturally and socially prescribed roles that one must fill each day. Some of these roles are compatible and reinforce one

another while other roles may conflict and cause stress. The demands made by the role of athlete appear to be in harmony with the male sex role, while many of the demands placed upon an athlete are in conflict with traditional sex roles for women. If there is too great a disparity between roles, interpersonal and psychological strain may result (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

Although studies have shown that the role of athlete for males can increase popularity and positively influence the social self (Stein & Hoffman, 1980), role strain was reported by Stein & Hoffman (1980) for male athletes when reconciling their personal performance versus the needs of the team. Role conflict was also reported when a lack of congruity existed between personality and social expectations (Stein & Hoffman, 1980). Collegiate male athletes reported difficulties during heterosexual dating when their dates expected them to exhibit sensitivity, openness and sharing in interpersonal relationships, traits which are not cultivated in athletics (Stein & Hoffman, 1980). The nonathlete also experienced role strain when he failed to fit into the role of athlete.

Snyder & Kivlin's (1975) research cited several positive correlates of participation in athletics for women; however, role conflict was often mentioned as a negative aspect of sports for women. According to Sage &

Loudermilk (1979) a dichotomy exists between society's view of desirable female behavior and the characteristics necessary to compete successfully in sports. Methany's research (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) described the social acceptability of various sports. Sports which require grace, skill, balance or flexibility are met with approbation more than sports in which endurance, speed, strength, or bodily contact are required for women (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). The more acceptable sports include swimming, tennis and gymnastics, while team sports such as softball, hockey and basketball were judged to be less acceptable. Theoretically, women who become involved in the latter group of athletic activities could be subject to greater role conflict (Sage & Loudermilk, 1979) or those activities may attract women who are more masculine or androgynous (Myers & Lips, 1978).

Results of a study based on the Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Salisbury & Passer, 1982) indicated that adult women who participate in non-socially approved sports endorse more liberal sex-role attitudes than do women who participate in socially approved sports. Adult female athletes had not adopted a less liberal view of women's roles to counteract their participation in non-socially approved sports (Salisbury & Passer, 1982).

However, Salisbury & Passer (1982) were careful to state that liberal sex-role attitudes do not negate the possibility that female athletes may experience conflict when behaving in gender inappropriate ways during competitive situations. In contrast to results discussed above, Snyder & Kivlin's (1977) research indicated that female athletes, not differentiated by socially approved or non-approved sport participation, supported a more traditional view of the female sex role than did a group of nonathletes. Snyder & Kivlin (1977) suggest that the non-traditional role of athlete did not spill over into all phases of sex role.

According to Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983), in addition to what type of sport she plays, women athletes may also be judged by their style of involvement, level of ambition or how they are perceived in relation to the ideal woman. Male and female college student's acceptance of female in sport was assessed by Nixon, Maresca & Silverman (1979). Results of their study indicated that females were substantially more likely to endorse female involvement in sports than were males. In another investigation which attempted to assess college student's perceptions of women's roles, Griffin (1973) utilized a semantic differential. She discovered that female athletes and female professors, both perceived as active

and potent, were furthest from undergraduate's image of an ideal woman. Hall (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) found less differences when female athlete was compared to feminine women. Female athlete was judged to be more potent (strong, powerful, effective) than feminine woman, who was viewed as helpless, but both female athlete and feminine woman were judge positively by athletes and nonathletes. Vickers, Lashuk & Taerum (1980) also utilized a semantic differential technique to discern junior high, high school and college students' attitudes towards the terms: male, female, male athlete and female athlete. Analysis of the data revealed that on the evaluative section of the scale female athlete was most highly placed, followed by female, male athlete and male. The potency-activity dimension of the scale showed male athlete to be the most potent-active, followed by the concepts male, female athlete and female. Vickers, et al. (1980) conclude their article by stating that their results are in line with societal expectations and readily observable biological realities. However, other researchers may take exception to this last observation.

A semantic differential scale was employed by Bird & McCullough (1977) to determine 45 athletes' and nonathletes' perceptions of femininity as viewed within the following roles: ideal woman, mother, housewife,

hostess, sister, working woman, self and athlete. Sample selection was random. There were no significant differences in perception of femininity between athletes and nonathletes. However, the role of ideal woman was most highly evaluated, which was similar to Griffin's (1973) findings, and female athlete was seen as the most potent. Bird & McCullough (1977) state that the activity factor was viewed as the least feminine. This finding indicated that there was a within role conflict for the female athlete because it was acceptable to be an athlete, but the dynamics and activities, such as aggression, physical contact and achievement were not acceptable (Bird & McCullough, 1977). Bird & McCullough (1977) attribute the differences found between their study and Hall's (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) study to lack of agreement in the operation of relevant constructs and the geographical variability in perceptions of social role. Hall's (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) study was conducted in England and Bird & McCullough (1977) carried out their research in Southern California.

Women who are involved in athletics not only have to deal with conflicts between the roles of athlete and woman that are expressed by society, but she must also come to terms with her own feelings about these two roles (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). In three separate



studies, Harris, Kennecke and Tyler, (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) determined that women view their athletic role as disconnected from and somewhat inconsistent with their general social self. Harris (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) found that when the social self was compared to the competitive self, the competitive self stressed achievement, dominance, aggression and endurance. The competitive self was also determined by Harris (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) to be less affiliative, change oriented, abased and feminine. Tyler (cited in Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983) compared the social and competitive self perceptions of varsity athletes to self perceptions of students enrolled in sport classes. She found that although the social self concepts were similar, the competitive self concepts of the two groups were dissimilar.

Sage & Loudermilk (1979) studied, perceived and experienced role conflict for athletes enacting the role of female and female athlete. Their research disclosed that 26% of the female athletes studied perceived role conflict to a large or very large degree and that 20% experienced role conflict to that same level. Sage & Loudermilk (1979) speculate that this percentage was low because women who experienced role conflict at a painful level may have chosen to withdraw from sports or that

through athletic participation female athletes developed a more positive self concept. A significantly higher amount of role conflict was experienced by athletes competing in non-socially approved sports (softball, basketball, hockey) as compared to those female athletes participating in socially approved sports (tennis, golf, swimming). An investigation into role conflict experienced by the high school female athlete, based upon the 1979 research by Sage & Loudermilk for female collegiate athletes, revealed that athletes experienced significantly less role conflict than they anticipated (Anthrop & Allison, 1983). Although females participating in non-socially approved sports tended to perceive and experience more role conflict (similar to Sage & Loudermilk's 1979 research) athletes who participated in both socially approved and non-socially approved sports experienced the highest level of role conflict.

Anthrop & Allison (1983) discussed the differences between internal and external role conflict. Internal role conflict was defined as dealing with the athletes physical/psychological self-concept while external role conflict was defined as pressures imposed on the female athlete by significant others, the media or community (Anthrop & Allison, 1983). Their data suggested that the low incidence of internal role conflict was consistent

with previous research (Balazs, 1975; Snyder & Kivlin, 1975; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976) which found female athletes to have positive self-concepts. External role conflict, a major source of role conflict for the female high school athlete, was caused by receiving little or no recognition for her abilities and achievements and from conflicts with the male peer group and the male peer group's expectations of female athletes.

Although some female athletes perceive and experience role conflict (Anthrop & Allison, 1983; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979), research (Balazs, 1975; Snyder & Kivlin, 1975; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976) indicated that collegiate and high school female athletes appear to possess at least as positive if not more positive self-concept than their nonathletic counterparts. According to Anthrop & Allison (1983) sport participation appears to be psychologically fulfilling and enriching enough for the female athlete that she can accept being an athlete without reservations.

Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983) state that in order to fully understand role conflict experienced by athletes, research must be conducted on both male and female athletes. Currently, much research has focused upon the female and role conflict between her social and competitive self, however the results are inconclusive and more discerning research is needed. Clarification is also

needed to determine if and to what degree male athletes experience role conflict between their social and competitive selves. Additional information is also needed to explain why it is felt that sport participation detracts from femininity but yet many female athletes state that they feel positively about their social role and their bodies (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

### Sex Roles and Athletes

Historically the position that masculine and feminine attributes are bipolar opposites was advocated in the behavioral science literature (Harris, 1980). "The presence of feminine characteristics tends to preclude the appearance of masculine ones. Indeed, the absence of a feminine attribute is, by definition equivalent to masculinity. Conversely, masculine characteristics are assumed to preclude feminine ones and their absence defines femininity" (Harris, 1980, p. 229). According to Harris (1980), the goal of socialization was to instill masculine traits in boys and feminine traits in girls so that each would be able to perform the sex roles that society had designated for them by virtue of their biological sex.

Recently the bipolar approach to sex roles has been challenged by advocates of the dualistic approach. Central to the dualistic approach is the belief that

masculinity and femininity are two separate traits which vary independently and may coexist in men and women. Spence & Helmreich (1979) define femininity as having core properties which can be labeled as a sense of communion and masculinity as having core properties which can be labeled as a sense of agency. The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) was developed by Spence & Helmreich to measure the psychological dimensions of masculinity and femininity. The questionnaire consists of three separate scales which are labeled Masculinity (M), Femininity (F) and Masculinity-Femininity (M-F). Scores below the median on femininity and masculinity classify one as undifferentiated, below the median on femininity and above the median on masculinity place one in the masculine classification, above the median on femininity and below the median on masculinity classify one as feminine and above the median on both masculinity and femininity classify one as androgynous (Spence & Helmreich, 1979).

Spence & Helmreich's (1979) research suggests that masculinity and androgyny are allied with preferred behaviors and positive self-esteem in females and males. Their study on female varsity athletes revealed that the largest group of women were androgynous (39%), while the smallest group was classified as feminine (10%). Thirty-one percent fell into the masculine category and

20% were undifferentiated. Interpretation of these results indicate that instrumentality (masculinity) need not be achieved at the expense of expressivity (femininity), as demonstrated by the 39% of the women who scored high on both masculinity and femininity. Support for this finding was shown by the following studies. Colker & Widom (1980), utilizing the PAQ, determined that female athletes were significantly less feminine than their college peers, but not more masculine. Again, the largest percentage of the female athletes were classified as androgynous (Colker & Widom, 1980). Results of an investigation conducted in New Zealand by Chalip, Villiger & Duignan (1980) on female field hockey players revealed that a majority of the athletes were found to be androgynous as classified by the BEM Sex-Role Inventory. Research reported by Harris (1980) supports the results cited above and continues by stating that females who were classified as androgynous scored highest on self-esteem, masculine scoring individuals (males and females) scored the next highest on self-esteem and feminine and undifferentiated scorers placed the lowest on the self-esteem measures. Del Rey & Sheppard (1981) also found female athletes who possessed androgynous characteristics to have significantly higher self-esteem than athletes who were classified as feminine or

undifferentiated on the PAQ. Those athletes who were classified as masculine were found to have significantly higher self-esteem than the athletes classified as undifferentiated. According to Del Rey & Sheppard (1981) feminine characteristics alone do not produce high self-esteem. It is the characteristics designated as masculine, which, when combined with femininity produce high levels of self-esteem and behavioral flexibility for females (Del Rey & Sheppard, 1981). Harris (1979) states that one's psychological characteristics are the behavioral frame of reference correlated with self-esteem, not whether one is a male, female or an athlete.

Changes in technology, lifestyle, attitudes and a deeper understanding of human behavior have made the traditional male and female roles inappropriate goals of socialization (Harris, 1980). Realization of the psychological similarities which exist between males and females makes one aware that the behavioral differences which males and females display may be more aptly explained by socialization than biology. Ramifications of this realization include the need for broader definitions of masculinity and femininity, a minimizing of sex differentiation through socialization and the knowledge that a fully functioning human being possesses traits from both sex role classifications (Harris, 1980). These

changes, combined with equal opportunities and rewards for both male and females who choose to compete within the athletic arena, should facilitate the maximizing of athletic potential for females and males. Athletic females should no longer have their femininity questioned. Conversely, the expansion of sex role attributes available and minimization of differences between the sexes should allow males to choose not to pursue athletic endeavors without having their masculinity questioned (Harris, 1980).

#### Cross-cultural Sex Role Issues

Sports from the informal to the corporate level, have filled a variety of needs for its participants throughout history. Athletic activity can be engaged in for pure enjoyment. Sports can be a release valve for pent up tensions, or an expression of personal achievement and it can offer role models to be emulated. Sports also reflect and reinforce the values and beliefs of the larger American society by promoting and maintaining sexual stereotypes, the competitive ethic, aggression, male dominance, deferred gratification, materialism and conformity (Eitzen & Sage, 1978; Scott; 1980).

Since sport may be viewed as an expression of the socio-cultural system in which it occurs (Luschen, 1981) it is important to realize it is effected by the



institutionalized partitions and disparities that aid in differentiating society. In order to comprehend the essence of sport one must understand the diverse social distinctions that are prevalent between ethnic and racial groups and between men and women (Hall, 1977). Sport, as an institution, supports and perpetuates the unjust way in which money, power and opportunity are distributed to men and women within other major American institutions (Scott, 1980).

Traditionally American society has assigned one set of expectations to its male members and one set to its female members. These behavioral expectations or sex roles include acceptable attitudes, feelings and behaviors. Women's roles include wife, mother, homemaker and encompass adjectives such as passive, cooperative, nurturant, dependent, intuitive, expressive and nonathletic. Men are expected to be the workers, doers, the active vital members of society. Adjectives to describe them include aggressive, independent, competitive, instrumental and rational (King & Chi, 1979; Oglesby, 1978; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979; Snyder & Kivlin, 1977; Zoble, 1973). Social sanctions encourage different behavior patterns for each sex (King & Chi, 1979; Oglesby, 1978).

Although American society has assigned the above

roles to males and females, it is important to remain cognizant of the data from cross-cultural research which demonstrates the malleability of the human personality.

According to Mead (1963):

The temperament which we regard as native to one sex might instead be mere variations of human temperament to which the members of either of both sexes may, with more or less success in the cases of different individuals, be educated to approximate (p.xiv).

It is asserted that the differences in sex roles and temperament manifested in American society are not universal. The masculine and feminine sex roles and temperament have been shown to be only minimally biologically determined. They appear to be more the product of socialization or to be culturally determined, which are aspects of role theory and social learning (Bird & McCullough, 1977; Harris, 1980).

American cultural, social and sex role expectations also effect various ethnic groups which reside in America. It is not uncommon for behavioral expectations of an ethnic or cultural group to diverge from those of mainstream America. Mexican-Americans are an example of a group of people who live in America and maintain certain aspects of their native culture which distinguish them from Anglo-American society. A sharp delineation of sex roles, submission to male authority and acceptance of male superiority all constitute aspects of the traditional

Mexican feminine role (Penalosa, 1968; Gonzales, 1982). Nuturant, supportive, self-sacrificing and cooperative behaviors are expected of Mexican women (Gonzales, 1982; Vasquez, 1984). One aspect of male sex role identity in the Mexican culture is machismo, which includes the following characteristics: pronounced masculinity, aggressiveness, virility, fierce pride and fearlessness (Gonzales, 1982). Research by Gonzales (1982) indicates that although the Mexican-American male is not in accord with all aspects of the traditional Mexican sex roles, he agrees with the traditional roles to a greater extent than do Mexican-American women.

According to Penalosa (1968) Mexican-American women are socialized into the roles of wife, mother and homemaker. Due in part to changes in technology, a broadening of opportunities and contact with American values and sex role expectations, which are not as rigid as Mexican-American ones, it appears as though Mexican-American women are going through a transitional period in their roles (Marquez, 1977; Vasquez & Gonzalez, 1981). As Mexican-American females become more acculturated, and gain power through education and employment, the inflexibility of traditional Mexican sex roles are being questioned (Kranau, Green, & Valencia-Weber, 1982; Marquez, 1977). Research conducted by Gonzalez (1982)

indicates that female Mexican-Americans appear to be rejecting the traditional, rigid Mexican sex roles. Vasquez & Gonzalez (1981) express the hope that Mexican-American women will continue to gain equality and power without rejecting their ethnicity or motherhood.

In addition to the variance found between Mexican-American and Anglo-American sex role expectations, differences also exist between other aspects of the two cultures. Socialization and child rearing practices are examples of aspects of culture where emphasis on values and priorities diverge. Each culture emphasizes ideas which facilitate a smooth and successful transition from childhood to adulthood within that particular culture. Values which Mexican-American children are traditionally exposed to include sharing, cooperation and mutual dependence. In contrast to these values, American male children are encouraged to become independent, competitive individuals. It is noteworthy, however, that with successive generations, Mexican-American children become more competitive and less cooperative (Knight & Kagen, 1977). The terms biculturalism and multiculturalism have been proposed to explain the process which Mexican-Americans experience, in that they are subjected to both Mexican and American stimuli, cultural demands and beliefs as well as Chicano and other nonspecific cultural

influences (Garza & Lipton, 1982). Garza & Lipton (1982) support an interactional model of personality development to explain the manner in which the individual, the situation, the socialization practices, cultural and socioecological factors combine to differentially effect individual members of the Mexican-American culture or any culture.

No studies were found which compared Mexican-American and white female athletes, or which analyzed the Mexican-American athlete specifically. However, one study was found which investigated the differences between black female college athletes and black female college nonathletes in their perception of sex roles (Rao & Overman, 1984). Rao & Overman (1984) did not find differences between black athletes and black nonathletes with regard to their perceptions of sex roles. Results of this study did not support Snyder & Kivlin's (1977) findings that female athletes are more traditional in their perceptions of women's roles than nonathletes. Differences between the two studies may be due to the passage of time between when the studies were conducted or to the differences between sex roles for black and white women (Rao & Overman, 1984). It appears as though sex roles for black women are more compatible with the role of athlete and the role of athlete is more acceptable for

black women than it is for white or Mexican-American women (Rao & Overman, 1984).

Zoble (1973) states that although the female is no longer restricted by physiological constraints from participating in sports, her cultural roles, as discussed above, may still prevent free athletic participation. Masculinity and athletics are compatible and support each other, while femininity in the American and Mexican-American cultures espouses values and ideas which oppose successful athletic participation (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

#### Rationale

The preceeding review of the literature suggests that although sex roles are becoming less rigid, sports are still considered basically male domains (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983; Colker & Widom, 1980; King & Chi, 1979; Myers & Lips, 1978; Snyder & Kivlin, 1977; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1983; Williams, 1980). Varing degrees of role conflict between the social and competitive self has been reported for women (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983; Griffin, 1973; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979), within role conflict for the female athlete has been discussed by Bird & McCullough (1977), and role strain has been reported for men (Stein & Hoffman, 1980). There is, however, a shortage of research on role conflict for male athletes

since it is assumed that the male social and competitive/athletic selves are similar (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). Deeper explanation and insight into role conflict between the athletic self and the social self for both male and female athletes is required.

Clarification is also needed regarding the classification of male and female athletes as masculine or feminine on the PAQ. Colker & Widom (1980) found female athletes to be significantly less feminine but not more masculine than their college peers. The majority of the female athletes in the Colker & Widom (1980) study were classified as androgynous, similar to the results found by Spence & Helmreich (1978). King & Chi (1979) using the BEM Sex-Role Inventory found both female and male team sport athletes to score higher on femininity and androgyny than did individual sport athletes. King & Chi (1979) also discovered that male athletes were more feminine than nonathletic males. This suggests that traditional feminine traits (cooperation, sharing and interdependence) may be important for athletes and team sport athletes in particular (King & Chi, 1979). According to Blucker & Hershberger (1983) further research is the only way that the differences and similarities between male and female athletes can be defined.

One area of sport that may reveal differences between

males and females is their attitudes towards fair play. The Webb Scale (Webb, 1969) was designed to assess attitudes towards playing fairly (Fair), playing as well as you are able (Play) and beating your opponent (Beat). Ranking Fair first, Play second and Beat third represents the play orientation on the scale, while ranking Beat first, Play second and Fair third represents the most professional orientation. Research has indicated that males tend to score at the professional end of the scale more than females (Loy, Birrell & Rose, 1976; Sage, 1980) and that female's scores reflect an emphasis on fairness and integrity (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). Kane's (1982) study illuminated the differences between female athletes and nonathletes in their orientations towards play as measured by the Webb Scale. Female athletes were found to be more professional in their orientations than were female nonathletes. Women who endorsed masculine characteristics, as measured by the BEM Sex-Role Inventory, were found to support a more professional or male outlook on participation in sports while very few of those with a feminine orientation professed a professional outlook towards play. However, Kane (1982) noted that even though their orientation was professional, most of the female athletes stressed skill over winning, which was not as strong a professional statement as professed by



male athletes who endorse winning over skill.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate psychological masculinity and femininity, as measured by the PAQ; role conflict between the social and athletic/competitive self, as measured by the differences in scores on the semantic differential scales; and attitudes toward playing versus winning, as measured by responses to the Webb Scale, of male and female recreational league soccer players. It is believed that by operationally defining athlete in this study as one who is a member of a soccer team registered with the San Bernardino Soccer League will eliminate the problem found in some studies where the term athlete was vague. All athletes in this study will be group sport athletes and will be involved in a sport which may require body contact, competition against an opponent and instrumental aggression, which is a by-product of working towards a non-aggressive goal, rather than reactive aggression which is aggression with the intent to do harm (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

It is believed that the dependent measures utilized in this investigation were developed to measure aspects of normality and are appropriate for the population under study. Some research in the area of sport psychology has been criticized because measures which were designed to

assess abnormality rather than normality were utilized. It is also asserted that using a sample, although not a random one, which consists of males and females who are not enrolled in college athletic programs alone, or who are not superior athletes (populations upon which the bulk of research in this area was based) will increase the understanding of the group sport athlete who competes at the organized level of sport. Differences in sex, ethnic background, age, division of play and year of soccer experience may all contribute to the insights gained from research in sport psychology.

### Hypotheses

1. Female white athletes will score significantly higher on the masculinity scale of the PAQ than will Mexican-American female athletes.
2. Female athletes who have been playing soccer for less than one year will score significantly lower (less masculine) on the masculinity scale of the PAQ than will female athletes who have been playing for three or more years.
3. Male athletes who are classified as androgynous or masculine by the median split method of classification of the PAQ will view themselves significantly more positively on the athletic and social self semantic

differential scales than will male athletes who are classified as feminine or undifferentiated.

4. Female athletes who are classified as androgynous or masculine on the PAQ will score significantly more positively on the athletic self scale and the social self scale of the semantic differential scale than will females who are classified as feminine or undifferentiated.

5. Male athletes will experience significantly greater degree of similarity between their athletic selves and their social selves, manifested by the smaller differences in scores between their athletic self and their social self on the semantic differential scale than will females. This is due to the similarity between traits necessary for successful participation in athletics and characteristics of the male sex role (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983).

6. The following hypotheses are proposed with regard to the Webb Scale:

A. Male athletes will endorse a professional orientation significantly more than female athletes who will endorse a play orientation as measured by responses to the Webb Scale (Loy, Birrell & Rose, 1976; Webb, 1969).

B. Male athletes in division A will endorse a professional orientation significantly more than male athletes in division B or C.

C. Female athletes classified as androgynous or masculine will endorse a professional orientation significantly more than athletes who are classified as feminine or undifferentiated.

D. Female athletes who are members of division A teams will endorse a professional orientation significantly more than female athletes in division B.

## METHOD

### Subjects

The participants in this study were 165 male and 133 female recreational soccer players. The subjects represented 87% of the soccer players in attendance. All subjects were players on a team registered with the San Bernardino Adult Soccer League. Male subjects ranged in age from 18 to 53. Female subjects ranged in age from 18 to 46. Ethnic background of the members of the soccer league was somewhat mixed, but the majority of the players classified themselves as either white (65.4%) or Mexican-American (19%). In order to obtain a deeper understanding of two of the major ethnic groups which reside in the San Bernardino County area, analyses reported in the results section of this study are based upon responses from the white (122 males and 109 females) and Mexican-American (43 males and 24 females) ethnic groups only. Soccer teams were separated by sex and division of play. Within the men's league there were three subgroups, the A, B and the C division. According to Steve Lucey (personal communication, June 12, 1986), the coordinator of the San Bernardino Recreational Soccer League, the men's A division was comprised of the most skilled soccer players. Many of the members of the A

division play on college teams and this is reflected in the highly physical and competitive level of their play. Information from the demographic questionnaire indicated that the men in the A division were young (58% fell within the ages of 18 to 24), single (73%), and had high levels of experience (86% had played for more than five years). The B division players were not quite as skilled as the A division players and were also less competitive. Demographic information indicated that the men in division B were older (66% fell into the range from 25 to 38 years old), more likely to be married (50%), and less experienced (only 46% have played for more than five years). The B division men had more responsibilities (i.e. families and work) and consequently could not play as aggressively in their Sunday games as the men in division A. The men's C division was composed mainly of men over 30 years old who possessed mixed skill levels. According to the demographic questionnaire, the C division men were older (73% ranged in age from 32 to 46 years old), married (81%) and fairly experienced soccer players (42% had played for more than five years). The over 30 division met their needs for competitive athletic participation against peers rather than competing against men who were almost a decade younger than themselves.

The women's league was divided into A and B

divisions. The A division women players were the more skilled, younger and more athletic of the women's league. According to the information from the demographic questionnaire, almost 90% of the women in division A ranged in age from 18 to 31 years old, 94% were single and over 55% had played for more than five years. Demographic information on division B indicated that 73% ranged in age from 25 to 38 years old, almost 60% were married and 68% had been playing soccer for three years or less.

### Instruments

The instruments used in this study were a demographic questionnaire, the Personality Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ, Spence & Helmreich, 1978), two semantic differential scales designed to assess differences between the athletic self and the social self of the athletes, and the Webb Scale (Webb, 1969). Appendix A is a copy of the questionnaire.

Demographic questionnaire. Each subject filled out a demographic questionnaire which assessed the following items: sex, ethnic background, age, marital status, educational level, income level and years of experience playing soccer.

The Personality Attributes Questionnaire. The PAQ has been shown to measure the psychological dimensions of masculinity and femininity (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

The subjects were asked to rate themselves on each of the 24 bipolar items. Separate scores were computed for each of the three scales; masculinity, femininity and combined masculinity-femininity. The results of the scores on the masculinity and femininity scales were analyzed as dependent variables and the medians of each scale formed the basis of the classification into the four categories of the PAQ: androgynous, masculine, feminine and undifferentiated. Medians employed were obtained from the subjects of this study. A score of 22 on the masculinity scale and 23 on the femininity scale were the medians this research utilized. Classification was as follows:

androgynous = 22 or greater on the masculinity scale and 23 or greater on the femininity scale; masculine = 22 or greater on the masculinity scale and less than 23 on the femininity scale; feminine = less than 22 on the masculinity scale and 23 or greater on the femininity scale; and undifferentiated = less than 22 on the masculinity scale and less than 23 on the femininity scale.

Semantic Differential Scales. The semantic differential has been used in similar research (Bird & McCullough, 1977; Griffin, 1973) to measure differences between the social and competitive self or role conflict. It has been shown to be reliable (Bird & McCullough,



1977). For the purposes of this study, the semantic differential list was administered twice. One administration was in reference to the subject's athletic self and the other administration was in reference to the subject's social self. Role conflict was operationally defined as the difference in scores on the semantic differential between the athletic self and the social self. This method of measurement was compatible with the interactional paradigm which stresses the interaction between the person and the situation and which forms the theoretical basis for this research.

Total scores from each of the semantic differential scales, athletic and social self, were determined from the following adjective pairs; good-bad, powerful-powerless, fast-slow, happy-sad, strong-weak, active-passive, nice-not nice, agile-clumsy, energetic-unenergetic, agreeable-disagreeable, active-inactive, lively-tired, needed-unneeded, skillful-unskillful, known-unknown and impressive-unimpressive. A score of one was given for checking the blank nearest the first adjective of the pair and a score of seven was given for checking the blank nearest the last adjective of the pair. The five blanks inbetween could also be checked, and represented scores of two through six. The lower the score, the more positive the rating on the semantic differential scale. A score of

one on each individual scale indicated a very positive evaluation of one's self in relation to the construct at the top of the page, while a score of seven reflected a negative evaluation. The following five adjective pairs were not included in the athletic or social self total scores because they did not represent numerically comparable evaluations: noisy-quiet, violent-calm, delicate-rough, funny-serious and hard-soft. However, the five adjective pairs that were deleted from the total scores were included when comparisons were made between male and female soccer players on scores of the athletic self and social self for each of the individual twenty-one adjective pairs.

The Webb Scale. The Webb Scale (Webb, 1969) was utilized to measure attitudes towards playing and winning soccer. Subjects were asked to rank the following three items in order of importance to them: playing the soccer game fairly, playing the soccer game as well as they are able, or beating their opponent in the soccer game. Five questions were added after the Webb Scale. They were as follows: Do you feel that there is a conflict (a difference which causes you to feel uncomfortable) between your athletic self and your social self? Please rate the amount of conflict that you experience. Do you feel that women who play soccer receive negative reactions from

society? Please rate how you played today on a scale from one to five, one representing an excellent level of play and five representing a poor level of play. And, What was the result of your game today?

#### Procedure

Initial contact and approval to conduct this study was made through Steve Lucey, the coordinator of the San Bernardino Adult Recreational Soccer League. Subsequent contact and approval to approach individual players was made with coaches of the teams participating in the league at pre-season informational meetings. Appointments were made for questionnaire administration with each coach over the phone. All questionnaires were administered in a group setting following a regularly scheduled soccer game. After reading and signing the informed consent statement, subjects filled out and turned in their questionnaires to the experimenter at the soccer field. Each subject who filled out a questionnaire was given a ticket which could be redeemed for a small soda at the snack bar.

The first instrument presented was the demographic questionnaire which was followed by the PAQ. A randomized presentation of the two semantic differential scales (social self and competitive/athletic self) was administered next, followed by the Webb Scale. The battery of questionnaires took approximately ten to fifteen minutes to complete.

## RESULTS

This research was conducted to delineate and analyze differences between male and female soccer players and differences found among male soccer players and among female soccer players. The results of this study are presented under the following headings: 1) Psychological masculinity and femininity scales of the PAQ; 2) The semantic differential scales; and 3) The Webb Scale. The analyses conducted upon the masculinity and femininity scales of the PAQ involved both parametric and nonparametric versions of analysis of variance. Unless otherwise noted, analyses were performed on male and female athletes as separate subpopulations. Scores on the masculinity and femininity scales were used as dependent variables for the ANOVA's which utilized all possible permutations of the following independent variables: ethnic background, division of play, years of experience and age. Analyses were conducted in groups of three independent variables due to limitations of the SPSS computer program. Employing all possible three group permutations, as mentioned above, ANOVA's tested the effects of ethnicity, division of play, level of experience, PAQ classification and age on the athletic and

social self semantic differential scales. All post hoc analyses were conducted utilizing the Tukey-B measure at  $p=.05$ . In order to ascertain if significant differences existed between the mean of each adjective pair on the athletic self scale versus the mean of the same adjective pair on the social self scale, t-tests were utilized. Chi square analyses were conducted on the various response permutations of the Webb Scale to determine if ethnicity, division of play, years of experience, age or classification on the PAQ effected the orientations on the Webb Scale.

#### Psychological Masculinity and Femininity Scales of the PAQ

The hypotheses regarding the masculinity and femininity scales of the PAQ were: 1) Female white athletes will score significantly higher on the masculinity scale of the PAQ than will Mexican-American female athletes, and 2) Female athletes who have been playing soccer for less than one year will score significantly lower (less masculine) on the masculinity scale of the PAQ than will female athletes who have been playing for three or more years. As mentioned previously, these scales were analyzed by both a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA and a parametric ANOVA. The Kruskal-Wallis was utilized because the assumptions of the parametric version of the ANOVA may not have been

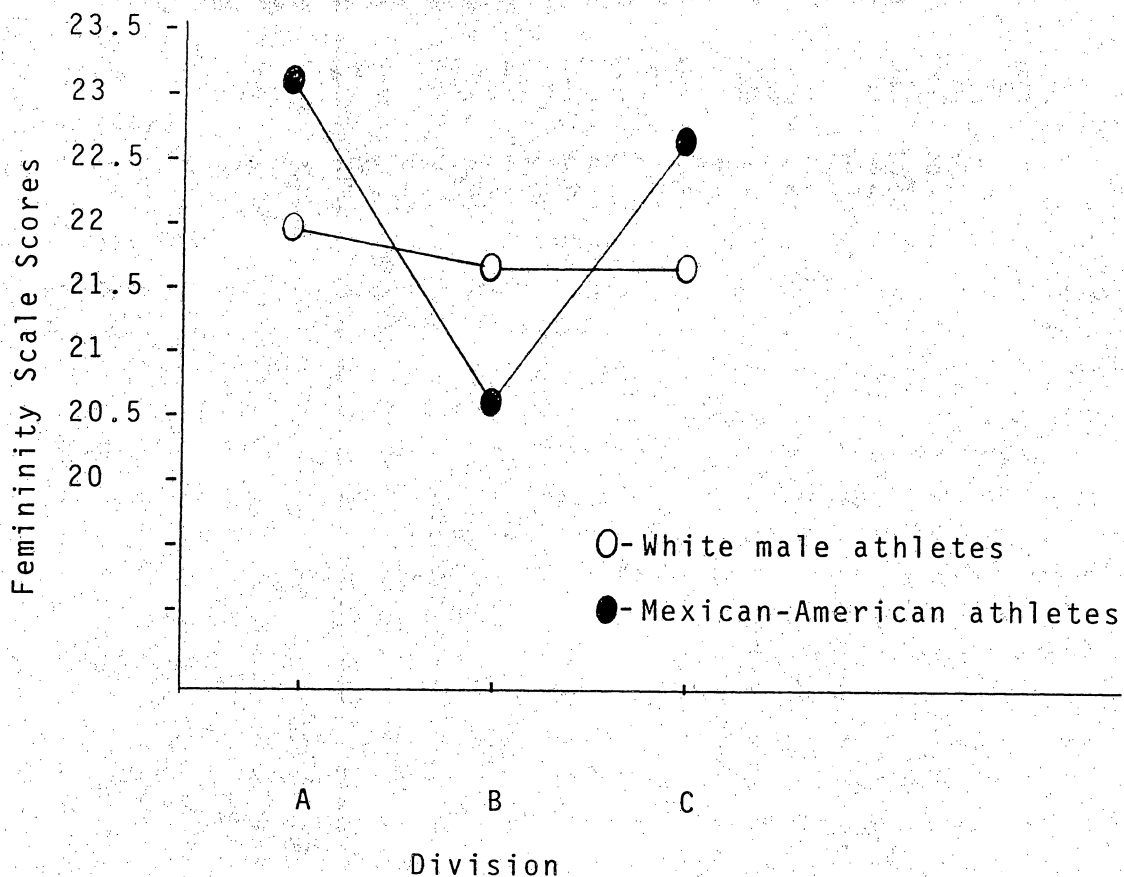
strictly met.

As hypothesized, significant differences on the masculinity scale of the PAQ were found between female athletes of different ethnic backgrounds. A Kruskal-Wallis one way ANOVA revealed that white female soccer players (mean rank=70.50) scored significantly higher on the masculinity scale than did their Mexican-American counterparts (mean rank=51.12),  $H=5.008$ ,  $p = .025$ . White female soccer players perceived themselves as possessing more masculine traits than did Mexican-American female soccer players. Significant differences were also found on the masculinity scale of the PAQ for women depending on their years of experience playing soccer. The mean rank on the masculinity scale of the PAQ for women with less than one year of experience was 55.98, for one to three years of experience the mean rank was 67.64, for three to five years of experience the mean rank was 70.86, and for those women who had more than five years of experience playing soccer, the mean rank was 86.12, ( $H=9.142$ ,  $p = .027$ ). The women who had been playing soccer for the more than five years endorsed more masculine traits than did those women who had been playing soccer for less than five years. Support for and further clarification of these significant differences was obtained when a parametric analysis of variance was

conducted on the data collected from the masculinity scale of the PAQ for females. A significant two-way interaction was found for ethnic background (2) X years of experience (4),  $F(3, 120) = 5.030$ ,  $p = .003$ . Follow-up tests indicated that scores on the masculinity scale of the PAQ were related to the number of years of soccer playing experience for Mexican-American females, but not for white female soccer players. A Tukey-B post hoc test revealed significant differences between those Mexican-American women who played for less than one year ( $\bar{X}=16.83$ ) and both those who played from three to five years ( $\bar{X}=23.13$ ) and those who played for more than five years ( $\bar{X}=25.00$ ) who manifested the highest score on the masculinity scale,  $q(4, 120) = 5.40$ ,  $p < .05$ . No significant differences were noted for female athletes on the femininity scale of the PAQ.

Male soccer players manifested no significant main effects on the masculinity scale of the PAQ. Scores for males on the femininity scale revealed a significant two way interaction for ethnicity (2) X division (3),  $F(2, 133) = 4.579$ ,  $p = .012$ . Figure 1 illustrates that for white males there was very little fluctuation in scores across divisions (division A  $\bar{X}=21.95$ , division B  $\bar{X}=21.66$ , division C  $\bar{X}=21.62$ ). Mexican-American males did display variation in scores based on division. Division A

Figure 1.



( $\bar{X}$ =23.08) exhibited the highest scores on the femininity scale of the PAQ followed by division C ( $\bar{X}$ =22.60) and division B ( $\bar{X}$ =20.38) respectively.

Using the classification process described in the method section, all athletes were categorized as either androgynous, masculine, feminine or undifferentiated. The data in Table 1 illustrates the percentage of male and



Table 1

Percentage of Males and Females Classified as  
Androgynous, Masculine, Feminine and  
Undifferentiated on the PAQ

Group	N	Androgynous	Masculine	Feminine	Undifferentiated
Males	165	315	315	85	285
Females	133	368	158	211	263

female athletes who fall into each of the four PAQ categories. Chi square analyses were executed to determine if there were any significant differences in categorization influenced by ethnic background, division of play, level of experience or age. No significant differences were discovered. At this point, classification on the PAQ was utilized as an independent variable in the analyses of the semantic differential scales and the Webb Scale, similar to the methodology utilized by Kane (1982) in her research.

Semantic Differential Scales

To determine whether there were differences in the

athletic self total score and the social self total score based on the following independent variables for males: ethnic background (2) X division of play (3) X age (5) X years of experience (4) X classification on the PAQ (4) an analysis of variance was conducted. For female soccer players, an analysis of variance was also conducted to determine if there were differences in the athletic self total score and the social self total score on the independent variables of ethnic background (2) X division of play (2) X age (5) X years of experience (4) X classification on the PAQ (4).

Athletic self total score. For male athletes there was a significant difference in the athletic self total score based on classification on the PAQ,  $F(3, 136) = 21.41$ ,  $p = .001$ . Males classified as androgynous ( $\bar{X}=34.02$ ) rated themselves most positively on the athletic self scale, followed by males classified as masculine ( $\bar{X}=37.37$ ), feminine ( $\bar{X}=43.07$ ) and undifferentiated ( $\bar{X}=49.22$ ). Post hoc analyses ascertained where the differences lie,  $q(4, 136) = 6.691$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). As hypothesized, androgynously classified males viewed themselves the most positively on the athletic self scale, and were significantly different from those males classified as feminine and undifferentiated. Significant differences were also found between males classified as

masculine and males classified as undifferentiated. In all cases the undifferentiatedly classified males saw themselves less positively on the athletic self scale. No significant differences were noted between males classified as masculine or feminine, feminine and undifferentiated, nor between those classified as androgynous and masculine. There were no significant main effects uncovered for ethnic background, division of play, age or experience level on the athletic self scale for male athletes.

For female soccer players significant main effects were discovered on the athletic self scale for age,  $F(4, 115) = 4.71$ ,  $p = .001$ , years of experience,  $F(3, 119) = 6.25$ ,  $p = .001$ , division of play,  $F(1, 118) = 8.782$ ,  $p = .004$  and PAQ classification,  $F(3, 118) = 8.24$ ,  $p = .001$ . A Tukey-B post hoc test revealed significant differences between the 18 to 24 year olds ( $\bar{X}=34.74$ ) and both the 32 to 38 ( $\bar{X}=48.10$ ) year olds and the 39 to 45 ( $\bar{X}=45.22$ ) year olds,  $q(4, 115) = 10.634$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). The 18 to 24 year olds had the most positive perception of themselves on the athletic self scale. There were no significant differences between any of the other age groups.

Post hoc analyses were also conducted on the experience variable. Those women who had played soccer

for less than one year ( $\bar{X}=49.14$ ) saw themselves significantly less positively than both those athletes who had been playing soccer for one to three years ( $\bar{X}=40.46$ ), and for more than five years ( $\bar{X}=32.70$ ),  $q(3, 115) = 8.267$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). Significant differences were also found between those women who had played soccer three to five years ( $\bar{X}=42.55$ ) and over five years ( $\bar{X}=32.70$ ). Females who had been playing soccer for over five years saw their athletic self the most positively, followed by those who had played from one to three years, three to five years and less than one year respectively.

Significant differences were found for female athletes on the athletic total score by division of play,  $F(1, 118) = 8.782$ ,  $p = .004$ . Post hoc analysis indicated that division A ( $\bar{X}=32.27$ ) females viewed themselves significantly more positively than division B ( $\bar{X}=44.09$ ) females on the athletic self scale,  $q(2, 118) = 6.55$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1).

As hypothesized, significant differences were found for the athletic total self score by PAQ classification for female athletes,  $F(3, 118) = 8.24$ ,  $p = .001$ . Post hoc analyses detected significant differences between those females with the most positive athletic self scale score, the androgynous group ( $\bar{X}=36.59$ ), and females classified as feminine ( $\bar{X}=47.15$ ) and undifferentiated

( $\bar{X}$ =49.38),  $q(4, 118) = 8.303, p < .05$  (see Footnote 1).

The undifferentiatedly classified group of female athletes had the least positive perception of themselves on the athletic self scale. No significant differences were discovered for female athletes on the athletic self total scale for ethnicity or division of play.

Social self scale. Significant main effects were found for male athletes on the total score of the social self scale for PAQ classification,  $F(3, 130) = 22.788, p = .001$  and ethnicity,  $F(1, 130) = 3.975, p = .048$ . Post hoc analysis revealed that the most positive social self scale total scores were found for males classified as androgynous ( $\bar{X}$ =34.16), followed in order by males classified as masculine ( $\bar{X}$ =38.20), feminine ( $\bar{X}$ =43.62) and undifferentiated ( $\bar{X}$ =50.46). Furthermore, significant differences were detected between male soccer players categorized as androgynous and those categorized as either feminine or undifferentiated,  $q(4, 130) = 6.624, p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). Significant differences were also detected between male soccer players classified as masculine and feminine and those classified undifferentiated, who viewed themselves the least positively.

Tukey-B post hoc analysis revealed that Mexican-American males ( $\bar{X}$ =37.93) saw themselves

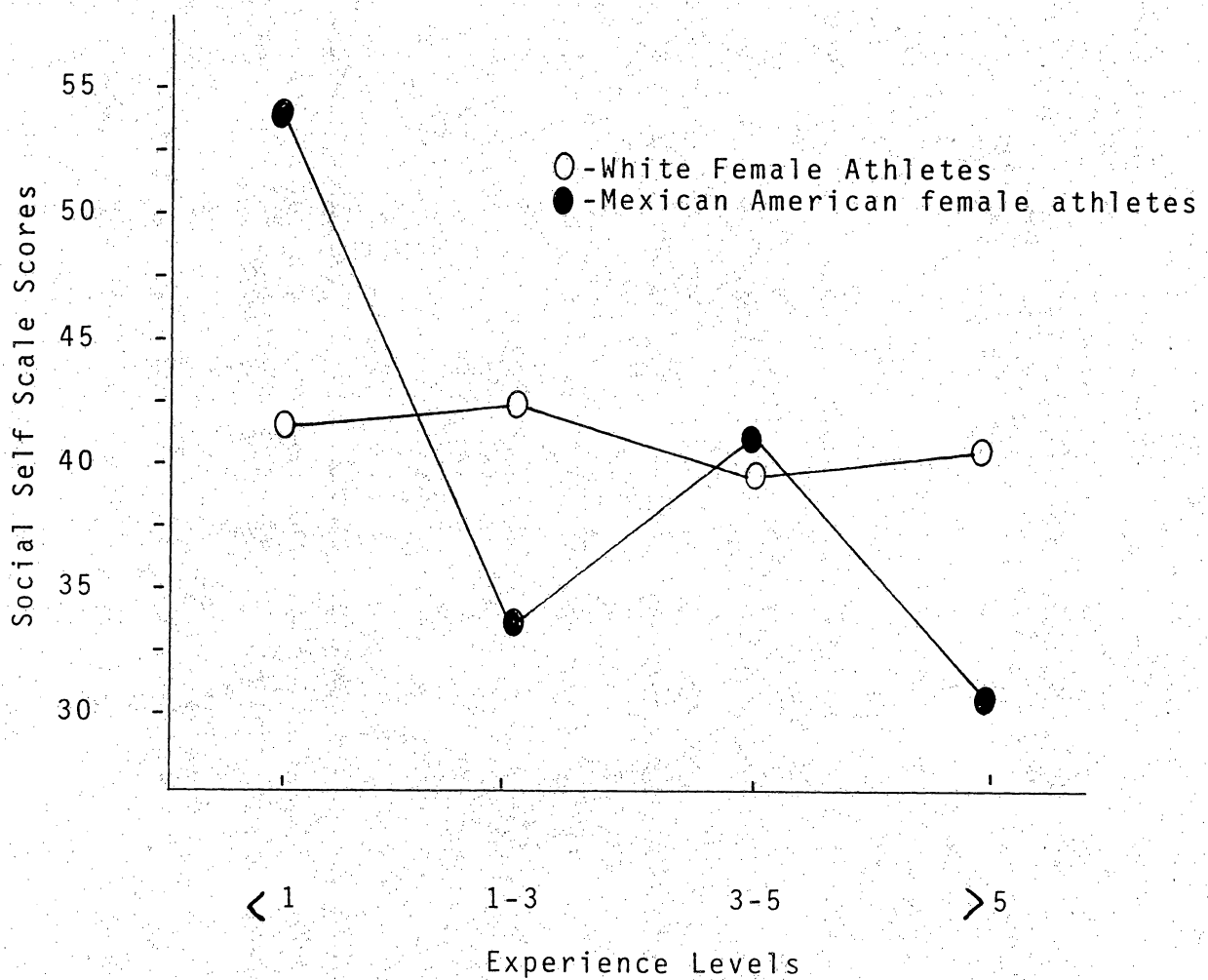
significantly more positively on the social self semantic differential scale than did white males ( $\bar{X}=42.06$ ),  $q(2, 130) = 3.494$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). There were no significant main effects on the social self total score for division of play, age or years of experience for males.

As hypothesized, significance was found for PAQ classification of female soccer players on the social self semantic differential scale,  $F(3, 118) = 8.07$ ,  $p = .001$ . The Tukey-B post hoc test conducted on the PAQ classification showed significant differences between women classified as androgynous ( $\bar{X}=35.75$ ) and undifferentiated ( $\bar{X}=47.94$ ),  $q(4, 118) = 8.303$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). Similar to results found for males, the most positive social self perception was indicated by the women classified as androgynous followed in order by those categorized as masculine ( $\bar{X}=40.81$ ), feminine ( $\bar{X}=43.21$ ) and undifferentiated.

Significant two-way interactions were found for ethnicity X experience,  $F(3, 118) = 3.713$ ,  $p = .014$  and for age X ethnicity  $F(3, 100) = 3.365$ ,  $p = .022$ . Post hoc analysis did not reveal significant differences between white female athletes by level of experience (experience less than 1 year  $\bar{X}=41.65$ , experience 1-3 years  $\bar{X}=42.54$ , experience 3-5 years  $\bar{X}=39.67$  and experience more

than five years ( $\bar{X}=40.67$ ). However, for Mexican-American female athletes significant differences were noted between those athletes who had played for less than one year ( $\bar{X}=54.83$ ) and both those who had played from one to three years ( $\bar{X}=33.75$ ) and over five years ( $\bar{X}=31.00$ ),  $q(2, 118) = 21.06$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1).

Figure 2.



Mexican-American females who had been playing for over five years viewed themselves the most positively on the social self scale, followed by those who played from one to three years, three to five years and less than one year respectively.

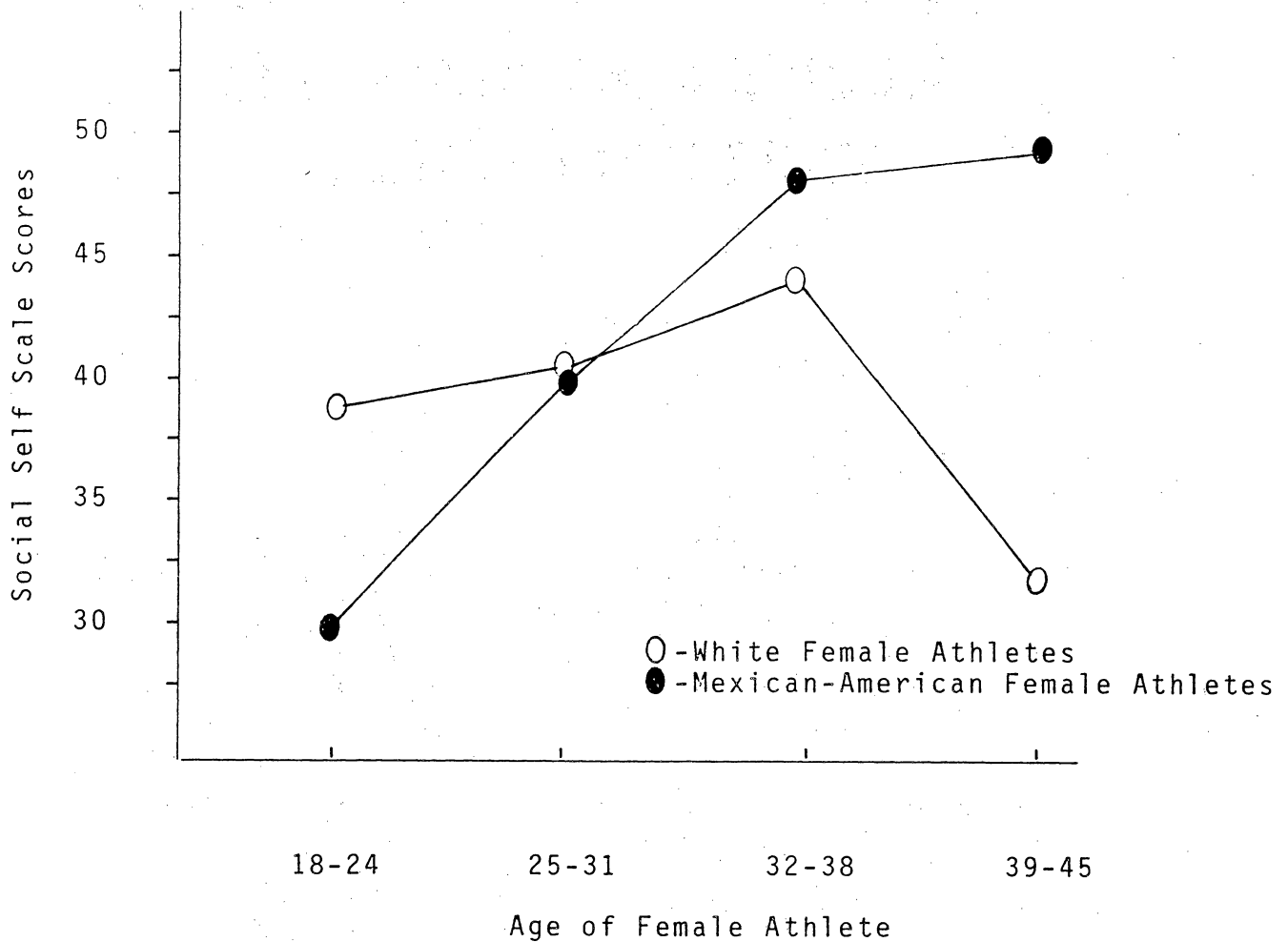
Post hoc analysis on the ethnicity X age interaction revealed significant differences for white female athletes between the 32 to 38 year old group ( $\bar{X}=44.41$ ) and the 39 to 45 year old group ( $\bar{X}=32.00$ ),  $q(4, 100) = 9.86$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Footnote 1). The oldest group of athletes had the most positive social self scale score, followed in order by the youngest group ( $\bar{X}=38.58$ ), the 25 to 31 year olds ( $\bar{X}=40.55$ ) and the 32 to 38 year olds. There were no significant differences found for the Mexican-American women based on age. However, the youngest athletes ( $\bar{X}=30.00$ ) had the most positive social self score, followed by the 25 to 31 year olds ( $\bar{X}=40.21$ ), the 32 to 38 year olds ( $\bar{X}=48.00$ ) and the 39 to 46 year olds ( $\bar{X}=49.00$ ) respectively. Significant main effects were not indicated for ethnic background, division of play or experience level for females on the social self semantic differential scale.

#### Other results on the semantic differential scales.

Analyses of variance were performed to determine whether the results of the game (win or lose), played immediately



Figure 3.



prior to the administration of the questionnaire, effected scores on the masculinity or femininity scales of the PAQ or the total score of the athletic self or the social self semantic differential scales. Significant main effects were only manifested for the women on the total score of the athletic self scale,  $F(1, 129) = 12.399, p = .001$ .

Post hoc analysis revealed significant differences between the group that won ( $\bar{X}=37.60$ ) versus the group that lost ( $\bar{X}=45.89$ ),  $q(2, 125) = 4.675$ ,  $p < .05$ . Female soccer players who had won their games had a more positive perception of their athletic self than did female soccer players who had lost their games prior to filling out the questionnaires.

It was hypothesized that male athletes would demonstrate a significantly greater degree of similarity between their athletic self and their social self as indicated by the smaller difference between their total score on the athletic self scale minus the total score on the social self scale (termed a difference score) than would female athletes. A t-test was conducted on the disparity between the means of the two groups ( $\bar{X}$  males =  $-.5714$  and  $\bar{X}$  females =  $1.4538$ ) and, although the results were not significant, they are worth mentioning due to the following two reasons: 1) The inequality of the difference score means for males and females indicated that difference between the athletic self mean and the social self mean was less for males than it was for females, suggesting that the athletic and social selves were slightly more similar for males than for females, and 2) The difference in polarity between male and female scores indicated that males perceived their athletic self

more positively than their social self while women perceived their social self more positively than their athletic self.

Table 2 summarizes the comparisons between the twenty-one adjective pairs of the athletic self semantic differential and the social self semantic differential for the male and female athletes. For the males, significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) were noted which indicated that males viewed their athletic selves as faster, less passive, noisier, more active and livelier than their social selves. The social self was seen as nicer than the athletic self ( $p < .05$ ). Significant differences  $p < .001$  also indicated that the athletic self was perceived as more violent, rougher, more serious, and harder than the social self. Regarding the females, significant differences ( $p < .05$ ) were noted between the athletic and social self scales which indicated that the social self was perceived as nearer to good, more needed, and funnier. The athletic self was seen as more powerful ( $p < .05$ ), more noisy ( $p < .05$ ), less nice ( $p < .001$ ), more violent ( $p < .001$ ), rougher ( $p < .001$ ) and harder ( $p < .001$ ) than the social self.

#### Webb Scale

Responses to the Webb Scale were organized into two separate categories. The first category represented responses indicating a play orientation towards athletic

Table 2

Difference means (athletic self mean-social self mean)  
of Male and Female Athletes for each  
Semantic Differential Pair

Adjective Pair	Mean Difference (Athletic Self-Social Self)	
	Males	Females
Good-Bad	.116	.408*
Powerful-Powerless	-.174	-.285*
Fast-Slow	-.245*	-.131
Happy-Sad	-.033	-.023
Strong-Weak	-.045	.023
Active-Passive	-.239*	-.054
Noisy-Quiet	-.323*	-.486**
Nice-Not Nice	.344*	-.700**
Agile-Clumsy	-.110	-.008
Energetic-Unenergetic	-.007	.154
Agreeable-Disagreeable	.071	.008
Violent-Calm	-.665**	-1.015**
Active-Inactive	-.168*	-.031
Delicate-Rough	.490**	.962**
Lively-Tired	-.181*	0
Needed-Unneeded	-.058	.354*
Skillful-Unskillful	.148	.131
Funny-Serious	.445**	.300*
Known-Unknown	.084	.046
Impressive-Unimpressive	.097	.162
Hard-Soft	.523**	-.846**

\*  $p < .05$     \*\*  $p < .001$

Note. Significance levels listed are in reference to within group comparisons between the athletic self mean and social self mean for each adjective pair.

participation. The second set of responses indicated a professional orientation towards sports participation. The play orientation stressed playing fairly and doing one's best while the professional orientation stressed winning and doing one's best.

It was hypothesized that male athletes would endorse a professional orientation on the Webb Scale significantly more often than female athletes. A chi square analysis performed on sex (2) x orientation (2) supported this hypothesis,  $\chi^2(1, N=292) = 16.57, p < .001$ . A play orientation was endorsed by the 56.8% of the males and while 43.2% of the males endorsed a professional orientation. Eighty percent of the female athletes endorsed a play orientation, while only 20% endorsed a professional orientation.

Chi square analyses were conducted on the responses of the male athletes to the Webb Scale. Contrary to the hypothesis, male athletes who were members of the A division did not endorse beating their opponents significantly more than athletes in division B or C. No significance was noted for ethnicity, age or level of experience.

Similar chi square analyses were conducted to determine if ethnic background, years of experience, age or classification on the PAQ effected female responses on

the Webb Scale. As hypothesized, a significant chi square value was yielded for division of play,  $\chi^2(1, N=130) = 4.85, p = .0276$ . Women who played in division A endorsed a professional orientation significantly more than women who participated in division B. Table 3 illustrates the percentage of female athletes who endorsed play and professional orientation according to their division of play. Contrary to the hypothesis, no significant differences were found based on the PAQ classification for females. No significance noted for years of experience, ethnicity nor age on responses to the Webb Scale.

Table 3

Percentage of Female Athletes Possessing  
A Play or Professional Orientation  
Towards Sports by Division

Division	N	Orientation	
		Play	Professional
A	16	56.3	43.8
B	114	183.3	16.7

The following four questions were the last items on the questionnaire. Response percentages for male and female soccer players are listed after the question:

1. Do you feel that there is a conflict (a difference which causes you to feel uncomfortable) between your social self and your competitive/athletic self?

	N	Yes	No
Males	165	20%	80%
Females	133	15%	85%

2. Please rate the amount of conflict that you experience on a scale from one to five, one representing no conflict and five representing a great deal of conflict.

	N	1	2	3	4	5
Males	165	44.8%	23%	23%	7.3%	1.8%
Females	133	34%	26%	28%	11%	1%

3. Do you feel that women who play soccer receive negative reactions from their friends, peers or society?

	N	Yes	No
Males	165	7.3%	92.1%
Females	133	12%	88%

4. Please rate how you think that you played today on a scale from one to five, one representing an excellent level of play and five representing a poor level of play.

	N	1	2	3	4	5
Males	165	7%	34%	38%	16%	4%
Females	133	8%	32%	34%	21%	4%



## DISCUSSION

Attempts have been made by trait, situational and interactional psychologists to investigate various aspects of the human personality as it relates to athletes. Topics of study have included the following: 1) indepth investigations of specific types of competitors (Balazs, 1975), 2) comparisons of athletes who play different sports (Aamodt, et al., 1982; Schurr, et al., 1977), 3) comparisons between team and individual sport athletes (Malmuphy, 1968; Peterson, et al., 1967; Schurr, et al., 1977), 4) comparisons of athletes versus nonathletes (Fletcher & Dowell, 1971; Renfrow & Bolton, 1981), 5) comparisons of male and female athletes (De Man & Blais, 1982; Dowd & Innes, 1982; King & Chi, 1979), 6) role conflict for male and female athletes (Sage & Loudermilk, 1979; Snyder & Kivlin, 1975; Stein & Hoffman, 1981) and 7) psychological masculinity and femininity of athletes (Myers & Lips, 1978). The lack of agreement regarding the findings of the previously cited studies and the desire to gain a deeper understanding of the adult recreational soccer player led to the current research which utilized an interactional perspective.

The purpose of this study was to test hypotheses regarding differences between male and female soccer

players and diversity found among male players and among female players. Data analyses examined potential subgroup variations based on sex, ethnicity, division of play, level of experience and age with regard to scores on the psychological masculinity and femininity scales of the PAQ. The above listed variables were examined, along with PAQ classification, with regard to the athletic self and social self semantic differential scales and the Webb Scale.

#### Self Perceptions on the Masculinity and Femininity Scales of the PAQ

Previous research (Vasquez & Gonzales, 1981) indicates that Mexican-American women are experiencing a transitional period in their roles, thus obtaining the opportunity to gain power in the family and in society. This increase in independence and power could lead towards Mexican-American women's endorsement of masculine attributes to a greater degree. However, the results of the present study are not supportive of this contention and do not indicate a strong endorsement of masculine traits by Mexican-American female athletes. Results of the present study actually support the hypothesis that white female athletes will endorse masculine attributes, as defined and measured by the masculinity scale of the PAQ, significantly more than Mexican-American female

athletes. These results are compatible with the degree of masculine traits endorsed by women from homes where traditional Mexican sex roles are enforced (Gonzalez, 1982; Vasquez, 1984). Although Vasquez & Gonzales (1981) make the previous contention regarding the increase in opportunity for the acquisition of power by Mexican-American women, they offer the following explanation for Mexican-American women's low masculinity scale scores. Vasquez & Gonzalez (1981) contend that Mexican-American women may not make the same distinctions between masculine and feminine attributes as did the primarily white population who served as the basis for the Spence & Helmreich (1978) norms. Spence & Helmreich (1978) maintain, however, that the "essential orthogonality of the clusters of attributes comprising the Masculinity and Femininity scales holds true across groups that vary widely in demographic characteristics" (p. 110). Therefore the present findings regarding Mexican-American women may indicate the following: 1) perhaps Vasquez & Gonzalez' (1981) assertion regarding the problems that Mexican-American women experience with the PAQ are valid; 2) regardless of the transitional period which Mexican-American women are undergoing, white women still endorse a greater amount of masculine traits; or 3) Mexican-American cultural sex role expectations are too

strong for Mexican-American women to completely break away from the traditional mold, which does not encourage the acquisition of masculine traits for women.

Soccer playing experience was significantly correlated with scores on the masculinity scale of the PAQ for Mexican-American women. Although the sample size was very small, Mexican-American women who had played soccer for more than five years scored higher on the masculinity scale than white female soccer players at any experience level. One possible explanation for the increase in masculinity scores for Mexican-American women as their experience level increased could be that soccer provided an environment, not previously experienced, in which exhibiting masculine attributes was positively reinforced. Perhaps, given the opportunity and reinforcement, Mexican-American women who had been playing soccer for more than three years incorporated within their personalities the masculine attributes necessary to successfully play soccer. An alternate explanation could be that the elevated scores are only a function of the environment in which the test was administered. The Mexican-American women who had played longer scored higher because they learned that in order to be successful on the soccer field they need to display masculine characteristics. Perhaps, once back in a social or

professional environment, the level of masculine traits professed may drop back down to a level similar to women who have not played soccer as long.

The findings that there were no differences between white and Mexican-American males on the masculinity scale suggests that the lack of similarity between definitions of masculine and feminine attributes suggested by Vasquez & Gonzalez (1981) may be sex specific for Mexican-American females only. Another explanation may be that both the Mexican-American and the white American cultures socialize their males to be independent, self reliant, dominant and aggressive. Therefore, both the male sex role and the masculine attributes necessary to successfully participate in sports are matters which both Mexican-American and white males have been experiencing most of their lives.

Mexican-American male's scores on the femininity scale of the PAQ varied across division of play, while scores of white male soccer players did not. This fluctuation in scores may have been caused in part by the need of the Mexican-American A and C division players to strongly endorse feminine attributes in order to successfully play the team sport of soccer. Results indicated that Mexican-American division B players did not exhibit as high a level of feminine traits as division A or C players. According to the director of the

recreational league, Steve Lucey, division B players do not, as a group, take their soccer playing as seriously as the men in division A or division C. The Mexican-American division B players may not have incorporated as many feminine traits, which aid in team play (King & Chi, 1979), into their personalities. There may be other reasons for this two-way interaction between division and ethnicity which further research into the differences between the divisions and ethnic groups could illuminate.

#### Self Perceptions on the Athletic Self Semantic Differential Scale

The present study found that androgynously classified males viewed themselves the most positively on the athletic self semantic differential scale, followed by males classified as masculine, feminine and undifferentiated. These findings are interesting since traditionally sports has been viewed as predominantly a masculine domain, and yet, males who perceived of their athletic self the most positively were those males who highly endorsed both masculine and feminine characteristics. The idea that an androgynous orientation could be advantageous in athletic situations was asserted by King & Chi (1979) in their discussion of two feminine traits, cooperation and sensitivity, which appear to have direct relevance to team sports, team spirit and

cohesiveness. Contrary to what may be expected, the present study indicated that equal percentages of male athletes were classified as androgynous and masculine followed in order by the undifferentiated and feminine classifications. This finding contrasts the results found by Myers & Lips (1978) in which the largest percentage of males playing racquetball were classified on the BEM Sex-Role Inventory as masculine. The differences between the Myers & Lips (1978) study and the present study may be a function of the instruments used to classify players or may be due to the nature of the sports. Soccer, a team sport, may demand feminine traits such as interdependence and communication, while racquetball, an individual sport, does not.

Little or no research has explored the variables of age, experience level and division of play for recreational adult soccer players. The results of the present study indicated that age, experience level and division of play were significant variables in relation to athletic self perception of female athletes. Young women between the ages of 18 and 24, saw themselves the most positively on the athletic self semantic differential scale, followed by the 25 to 31 year olds, the 39 to 45 year olds and the 32 to 38 year olds respectively. The differences on the athletic self scale due to age may be

influenced by the younger women's better physical condition and their higher experience level. Women who had been playing soccer for more than five years exhibited the most positive self perception on the athletic self scale, followed in order by those who had played from one to three years, three to five years and less than one year. These differences demonstrated that increasing the amount of soccer playing experience from less than one year to over five years can positively influence the female soccer player's perception of herself athletically. However, although the means were very similar, those who played from three to five years scored somewhat lower on the athletic self scale than those who had played from one to three years.

After considering the results discussed above, it follows logically that those women who are members of the A division, which is comprised of younger, more experienced players, would feel more positively about themselves athletically than the women in division B. The results of this study supported the above statement.

The present study also found that androgynously classified females scored more positively on the athletic self scale than masculinely, femininely or undifferentiatedly classified females. Those females who endorsed both instrumental and expressive characteristics



perceived of their athletic selves the most positively. These results are again supportive of King & Chi's (1979) contention that it would be useful for players on a team sport to possess both feminine and masculine attributes. Duquin (1978) stated that an androgynous classification is conducive to behavioral flexibility and is important for females who wish to participate in sports. Female soccer players in the present study who have a positive athletic self image did not renounce their feminine traits, but rather endorsed both expressive and instrumental characteristics. The present findings provided additional evidence against the myth discussed by Myers & Lips (1978) which stated that only masculine women participate in aggressive, competitive sports and continued to cast doubt upon the traditional belief that female athletes are low in femininity.

These results supported the findings by Myers & Lips (1978) that the largest percentage of female participants in a competitive sport situation would be androgynous (36.8% in the present study). However, Myers & Lips (1978) also suggested that in very competitive situations women may have to be masculine or androgynous to even participate. This idea was not supported by the findings of the present study which indicated that over 47% of the women who play soccer, a very competitive and aggressive

sport, were classified as feminine or undifferentiated.

It should be noted that although the present findings indicate that femininely and undifferentiatedly classified females do play soccer, the androgynously classified female soccer players had the most positive self concept.

#### Self Perceptions on the Social Self Semantic Differential Scale

Support was found for the hypothesis that male athletes classified as androgynous could view themselves significantly more positively on the social self scale than would male athletes classified as feminine or undifferentiated. Although they did not see themselves as positively as males classified as androgynous, males classified as masculine did view themselves significantly more positively than males classified as undifferentiated. However, in opposition to traditional male sex role theory, males classified as masculine did not view themselves significantly more positive than males classified as feminine. It is interesting that in this study androgynous males viewed themselves the most positively, even though it may be expected that males classified as masculine would have the most positive self rating on the social scale. Perhaps the men in this study who were classified as androgynous have found the broad range of behaviors which facilitate positive athletic self

perception were equally advantageous in their social lives (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). Although Duquin (1978) states that males are supposed to be only instrumental while females may be instrumental and expressive, results from this study indicate that those males classified as androgynous perceived of themselves the most positively on both the athletic and the social self semantic differential scales. These findings indicate a change in the penetrating proposition discussed by Duquin (1978) that possessing instrumental traits is the only ticket to healthy adulthood.

Ethnic differences on the social self scale indicated that Mexican-American males saw themselves more positively than did white males. Further research needs to be conducted to ascertain whether these differences stem from Machismo, an aspect of Mexican male sex role identify which stresses masculinity, pride and virility (Gonzalez, 1982), socialization practices or from variables not investigated in this study.

Support was manifested for the hypothesis which stated that female athletes classified as androgynous on the PAQ will score the most positively on the social self scale. Women who were able to incorporate high levels of both expressive and instrumental traits had the most positive perception of themselves socially. These women

possess the behavioral flexibility to adapt to specific situational demands that may call for dependent and passive behavior or independent and aggressive behavior. These results contradict Duquin's (1978) statement that although women see themselves as instrumental in sport settings they see themselves as expressive in social settings. Perhaps in the last eight years there has been a shift away from the segmented, polarized stereotypic approach to masculinity and femininity regarding women towards Spence & Helmreich's (1979) contention that one can be both instrumental and expressive in both sport and social settings, depending on the situation. This trend can be seen as an extension of the interactional perspective, where neither the trait nor the situation control the behavior, but rather a combination of the trait the individual possesses and the situation in which the individual finds her/himself is crucial.

The most positive self perceptions were given by males and females classified as androgynous with regard to both the athletic and social self semantic differential scales. The results of the present study have far reaching implications, not only for the study of athletes, but for the study of human beings in general. It is important to recognize that the behavioral flexibility associated with androgyny increases the athletic and

social self concept of both males and females. According to Reis & Jelsma (1973) androgynous individuals can be independent, competitive, stand up well under pressure, as well as, be helpful, sensitive and understanding. There is nothing about the first three traditionally feminine qualities in sport or social situations. Oglesby (1978) states that all the qualities of a fully functioning person have potential for expression in sport. The results of this study are supportive of this contention and may be extended to social situations as well. According to Harris (1975) the term athlete has no gender, it is only a word used to describe people participating in a certain environment. It is American society which has labeled sports as predominately a male domain (Reis & Jelsma, 1973) and it is American society which can open sports up to males and females. It is also American society which can recognize that males need to feel comfortable acquiring, adhering to and exhibiting masculine and feminine traits. This is precisely what the androgynous male athletes in this study demonstrated.

The Mexican-American female athlete's social self perception appears to be influenced by her level of experience playing soccer. The most positive social self perception was attributed to those Mexican-American female athletes with the highest level of experience and the

least positive self perception was reported by the least experienced Mexican-American soccer players. One possible explanation for the elevated social self perception of the Mexican-American women who have played soccer the longest is that increased soccer participation, which may increase positive feelings about skill, competence and one's body, elevated their positive feelings about themselves. The results of the present study support the findings by Snyder & Kivlin (1975) which indicated that females who play sports are more pleased with themselves than are those women who do not participate in athletics.

White female athletes between the ages of 39 and 45 reported the most positive self perception on the social scale, while the youngest Mexican-American women athletes had the most positive self perception. The older, white females may have worked through their self doubts and come to terms with their social selves. This result is supportive of a study conducted by Gurin, Veroff and Feld in the late 1950's which indicated that older subjects were more positive in their self perceptions than were younger subjects (Newman & Newman, 1975). The younger white women may be working through some of the conflicts which the women who are older may have already resolved. One possible reason that the youngest Mexican-American women may have the most positive social self concept is

that they have become acculturated and have had the opportunity to experience a lessening of the rigidity in roles traditionally associated with their culture. Consequently, they feel more positively about themselves than do women who are older and may not have had the opportunity for behavioral flexibility. Kranau, et al. (1982) have noted that the highly acculturated Mexican-American woman tends to be young and since the young Mexican-American women in his study had the most positive social self concept, perhaps level of acculturation is a variable which needs to be explored in order to fully understand the relationship between the Mexican-American individual and both the social and athletic self concepts.

#### Additional Findings Regarding the Athletic and Social Self Scales

As might be expected, athletic self perception for female athletes varied as a function of the win or loss of the game played prior to the administration of the questionnaire. Women who won their game indicated a more positive athletic self perception. This may be due to the fact that the athletic self perception of women is influenced by external events, while the athletic self perception of men is not. Eighty-five percent of the women in this study had been playing soccer for less than

five years while this was true for only 48% of the men. The lack of experience playing soccer for women may contribute to her lowered athletic self image when they lose a soccer game. However, for men, who have been playing soccer for longer and perhaps have been involved in sports for many years, their athletic self image is not threatened by a single athletic event, such as the loss of a game. Lever (1976) suggests that the different types of play experiences that males and females have while growing up contributes to the roles that they are prepared for as adults. According to Lever (1976), the young male's participation in competitive sports teaches him valuable lessons about life in general. He is taught independence, organizational skills, rules for group interactions, cooperative and leadership skills, and how to deal with victory and defeat. Male athletes may learn that even the best hitter in baseball only hits the ball about 33% of the time. This knowledge enables male athletes to deal with the fact that at one time a person may experience athletic set backs, such as a loss, but there is also the chance that with continued participation one will also experience success and thus the athletic self concept is more stable and less situationally determined for the male than the female. At this point, it appears that recreational women's athletic self perception may be



subject to change depending on situational determinants.

Another factor which has been discussed in the literature concerning women athletes is role conflict (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1976; Sage & Loudermilk, 1979; Bird & McCullough, 1977). Boutilier & San Giovanni (1983) stated that the issue of role conflict for women is unclear because of the lack of comparable research on men. It is assumed that the male athletic self and social self are similar, but there is no research to back up this assumption. In order to rectify that problem, this research compared the difference between the athletic and social selves of men to the difference between the athletic and social selves of women. Results indicate that there are no significant variations between men's difference scores and women's difference scores. Role conflict, for both male and female recreational soccer players does not appear to be an important psychological issue. However, in two areas trends were noted between the male and the female semantic differential difference scores. First, the athletic self and the social self scores were more disparate for women than for men. Second, males viewed their athletic self more positively while females viewed their social self more positively. This may indicate that males were the most comfortable with their athletic self and females were

most comfortable with their social self, as measured by the semantic differential scales. Perhaps this difference is influenced by the traditional socialization processes which encouraged males to participate in athletic activities. For many males athletic participation has been an integral and positive part of their lives. The traditional socialization process encouraged females to participate in social activities and to integrate these activities into their lives.

Females who play soccer, which according to Anthrop & Allison (1983) is a non-socially approved sport due to the amount of physical contact and aggressive behavior involved, would be expected to experience role conflict. However, in this present study females do not report a higher amount of role conflict between their social and athletic selves than do male soccer players. It is possible that the explanations suggested by Sage & Loudermilk (1979) for the small amount of role conflict experienced by their female subjects were also at work in this research. They suggested that the women who played sports and experienced a great deal of conflict chose not to participate or that participation in sports had increased the positive feelings that females have about their bodies, physical skills and self esteem so that the role conflict that they may have perceived dissipated.

This study revealed that women who played soccer the longest had the most positive athletic self perception, reinforcing Sage & Loudermilk's contention that participation in sports may elevate positive self perceptions.

The results of this study, along with findings by Snyder & Spreitzer (1976) support Sage & Loudermilk's (1979) suggestion that currently, the social costs of playing sports for females are not as great as in the past. This may be due to the liberalization and expansion of sex role appropriate behaviors. More research is needed to clarify these trends and to determine to what extent role conflict does or does not exist for male and female athletes. Variables which may lead to insight in this area include the age of the athlete, experience level, types of sports played, level of family, peer or spousal support for sport participation and socialization practices in the home of the athlete while he/she was growing up.

Findings of the comparisons of the semantic differential scales within the male sample and within the female sample were interesting. Males saw their athletic self as significantly faster, noiser, more active, livelier, more violent, rougher, more serious and harder than their social self. These results make sense when

considering the traits necessary to play competitive sports (Harris, 1975). However, males social self was seen as nicer than their athletic self. Perhaps this is due to the demands of soccer, in which aggressive, not so nice behavior is necessary at times.

Female athletes indicated that their social selves were nearer to good than bad, more needed and funnier than their athletic selves. Their athletic selves were perceived as more powerful, less nice, more violent, rougher and harder than their social selves. The female athletes appear to have developed appropriate characteristics, similar to those indicated by males, for athletic situations (Harris, 1975).

#### Play versus Professional Orientations Towards Sports

Loy, Birrell & Rose (1976) indicated that a higher percentage of both males and females endorsed a play orientation towards sports rather than a professional orientation towards sports. The results of the present study supported these findings. Although a higher percentage of both male and female recreational athletes endorsed a play orientation, male athletes were found to endorse a professional orientation towards soccer significantly more than female athletes. This is in accord with the more competitive, aggressive and product oriented traits associated with traditional male sex role

behavior.

The literature appears to be void of studies which utilized the Webb Scale to obtain responses from recreational soccer players. However, one study which utilized subjects who may be similar to recreational players was conducted by Loy, Birrell & Rose (1976). Their research indicated that high school and college intramural program participants endorsed a play rather than a professional orientation, while those who were involved in highly competitive sports endorsed professional orientations more often than play orientations. One hundred percent of the female and 75% of the male intramural participants in the Loy, et al. (1976) study endorsed a play orientation, while 80% of the female and 59% of the male varsity athletes endorsed a play orientation. Contrary to expectations, the second set of statistics, those of the varsity athletes, were more similar to the results of the present study in which 80% of the females and 56.8% of the males endorsed a play orientation. The finding that recreational player's responses on the Webb Scale were more similar to college varsity athletes than intramural athletes may be due to the highly competitive nature of the recreational athletes, for whom athletic competition has been prioritized highly enough to join a team which practices

and plays on a regular basis. The Webb Scale scores may even be a reflection of the attitude towards winning of the coaches in the recreational league versus the intramural leagues.

Contrary to the hypothesis, male athletes of division A were not found to be more professional in their orientation towards sports than members of division B or C. This may be due to the similarity in the desire to win, do their best and play fairly of males across divisions. It appears that although men in division A are younger and more skilled, the orientation towards winning remains stable in males as they age and whether or not they are highly skilled.

Women of the A division endorsed a professional outlook more than the women in division B. Contributing to this may be the younger age, higher level of experience and higher skill level of the women in division A. It is interesting to note that for women there is a difference in the orientation towards sports across divisions, while for men the orientation remains stable across divisions. Contributing to this difference may be that the higher skilled women realize that they have the potential to win, and consequently wish to win more than those women who are less skilled. Another possible reason for the difference between women's divisions is that the highly skilled women's

orientation towards sports are similar to males who have been encouraged to play sports and exhibit the traits necessary for competition most of their lives while the less skilled women do not have such a strong desire to win. Division A females did endorse winning to the same degree as did the men in division B, which is not quite as high as the men in division A and not quite as low as the men in division C.

Contrary to both the hypothesis which stated that females classified as androgynous or masculine would endorse a professional orientation significantly more than than female athletes categorized as feminine or undifferentiated and Kane's (1982) results, there were no differences noted on the Webb Scale for female athletes due to PAQ classification. Kane (1982) found that women who had a masculine orientation were more likely to endorse a professional attitude towards sports.

Differences in conclusions between the Kane study and the present one may have occurred because Kane's subjects were members of a junior college's athletic teams, and probably were similar in age, life experiences, athletic experience levels, while subjects of this study were members of a recreational league, and had the potential for a greater fluctuation in age, experience level and life experiences. Further research may be able to discern whether or not

young recreational players classified as masculine would endorse a professional orientation more than young recreational players classified as androgynous, feminine or undifferentiated.

#### Concluding Statements

Data from the present study illuminate the similarities and differences found between and within male and female athletes who play recreational soccer. The study of both the individual's personality traits and the situation that the individual may find him or herself in was facilitated through the utilization of the interactional perspective. Ramifications from the study of athletes who play recreational sports include the realization that the athletic arena, at the recreational level, is no longer a masculine stronghold, but is a place where women may participate comfortably. The acknowledgement that the possession of both masculine and feminine traits may have positive effects upon an individual's athletic and social self perceptions leads to optimism regarding the future of males and females in sports. In addition this is supportive of the conclusion that our culture's traditional and rigid definitions of appropriate sex role behavior for males and females may be obsolete. Those individuals who possess only traditionally masculine or traditionally feminine



qualities may not be functioning athletically or socially at as optimal or satisfying a level as those men and women who are androgynous, accepting and displaying all aspects of their personalities.

## APPENDIX A

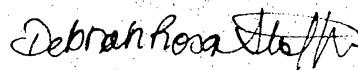
### 1) Soccer Questionnaire

## Informed Consent Statement

This research is concerned with male and female recreational soccer players. Your answers to the following questions will increase the level of knowledge about men and women who choose to engage in competitive sports at the recreational level. The questions are designed to measure how you feel about your social and athletic roles. It will take approximately ten minutes of your time to fill out the questionnaires.

Your cooperation is requested, but participation is your decision. The information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential, and your name will not appear anywhere in the research findings. Please answer each question as honestly as you can. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,



Deborah Rosa Stoffel

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Signature of person agreeing to participate

## Personal Background Information

Please answer each question as completely as possible. Use an X when it is appropriate.

01. Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female
02. What is your ethnic background?
- ☐ Anglo
  - ☐ Mexican-American/Chicano
  - ☐ Black
  - ☐ Asian
  - ☐ Other: \_\_\_\_\_
03. What year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_
04. Are you: ☐ single ☐ married ☐ separated  
☐ divorced ☐ widowed
05. What is your level of education?
- ☐ 0-8 years
  - ☐ 9-12 years
  - ☐ high school graduate
  - ☐ some college
  - ☐ college graduate
  - ☐ post-graduate work
06. What is your family income level?
- ☐ under \$12,000 per year
  - ☐ under \$20,000 per year
  - ☐ under \$40,000 per year
  - ☐ over \$40,000 per year
07. How many years have you played soccer?
- ☐ less than one year
  - ☐ one to three years
  - ☐ three to five years
  - ☐ more than five years

## Personal Attributes Questionnaire

The items below inquire about what kind of person you think you are. Each item consists of a pair of characteristics, with the letters A-E in between. For example:

Not at all artistic A..B..C..D..E Very artistic  
Each pair describes contradictory characteristics--that is you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not artistic at all. The letters form a scale between the two extremes. You are to choose a letter which describes where you fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would choose A. If you think you are pretty good you might choose D. If you are only medium, you might choose C, and so forth.

- |   |               |  |
|---|---------------|--|
| 01. Not at all aggressive                                       | A..B..C..D..E | Very aggressive                                |
| 02. Not at all independent                                      | A..B..C..D..E | Very independent                               |
| 03. Not at all emotional  | A..B..C..D..E | Very emotional                                 |
| 04. Very submissive   | A..B..C..D..E | Very dominant                                  |
| 05. Not at all excitable<br>in a major crisis                   | A..B..C..D..E | Very excitable in<br>a major crisis            |
| 06. Very passive  | A..B..C..D..E | Very active                                    |
| 07. Not at all able to<br>devote self com-<br>pletely to others | A..B..C..D..E | Able to devote<br>self completely<br>to others |
| 08. Very rough  | A..B..C..D..E | Very gentle                                    |
| 09. Not at all helpful<br>to others                             | A..B..C..D..E | Very helpful<br>to others                      |
| 10. Not at all competitive                                      | A..B..C..D..E | Very competitive                               |
| 11. Very home oriented  | A..B..C..D..E | Very worldly                                   |
| 12. Not at all kind   | A..B..C..D..E | Very kind                                      |
| 13. Indifferent to<br>other's approval                          | A..B..C..D..E | Highly needful of<br>other's approval          |
| 14. Feelings not hurt<br>easily                                 | A..B..C..D..E | Feelings hurt<br>easily                        |

- |  |               |                                  |
|--|---------------|----------------------------------|
| 15. Not at all aware of feelings of others | A..B..C..D..E | Very aware of feelings of others |
| 16. Can make decisions easily              | A..B..C..D..E | Has difficulty making decisions  |
| 17. Gives up very easily                   | A..B..C..D..E | Never gives up easily            |
| 18. Never cries                            | A..B..C..D..E | Cries very easily                |
| 19. Not at all self-confident              | A..B..C..D..E | Very self-confident              |
| 20. Feels very inferior                    | A..B..C..D..E | Feels very superior              |
| 21. Not at all understanding of others     | A..B..C..D..E | Very understanding of others     |
| 22. Very cold in relations with others     | A..B..C..D..E | Very warm in relations           |
| 23. Very little need for security          | A..B..C..D..E | Very strong need for security    |
| 24. Goes to pieces under pressure          | A..B..C..D..E | Stands up well under pressure    |

On the top of the next page you will find a concept that applies to you. Underneath the concept there is a set of scales. You are asked to rate the concept at the top of the page on the scales below. Please think about that part of yourself that is listed on the top of the page when you mark the scale. For example, if the concept at the top of the page was professional self, (this would include work outside the home, or inside the home if you are a homemaker, or work at school if you are a student), please place a check-mark for each set of adjectives describing the part of you that is your professional self. Here is how to use the scales:

If you feel that your professional self is very closely related to the adjective at one end of the scale, you should place your check-mark as follows:

Responsible X — — — or — — — Not Responsible

Responsible — — — — — X Not Responsible

If you feel that your professional self is quite closely related to one end or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check-mark as follows:

Responsible — X — — or — — — Not Responsible

Responsible — — — — — X — Not Responsible

If you feel that your professional self is only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

Responsible — — X or — — — Not Responsible

Responsible — — — — X — Not Responsible

If you feel that your professional self is neutral in relation to the two adjectives then you would check as follows:

Responsible — — — X — — — Not Responsible

Please remember to place your check-marks in the middle of the spaces, like this: X Please place a check mark for every scale. Remember to only place one check-mark between each set of adjectives.

## Your Social Self

Please place a check-mark for each set of adjectives indicating how you see yourself.

Good	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Bad
Powerful	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Powerless
Fast	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Slow
Happy	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Sad
Strong	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Weak
Active	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Passive
Noisy	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Quiet
Nice	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Not Nice
Agile	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Clumsy
Energetic	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unenergetic
Agreeable	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagreeable
Violent	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Calm
Active	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Inactive
Delicate	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Rough
Lively	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Tired
Needed	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unneeded
Skillful	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unskillful
Funny	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Serious
Known	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unknown
Impressive	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unimpressive
Hard	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Soft



## Your Competitive/Athletic Self

Please place a check-mark for each set of adjectives indicating how you see yourself.

Good	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Bad
Powerful	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Powerless
Fast	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Slow
Happy	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Sad
Strong	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Weak
Active	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Passive
Noisy	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Quiet
Nice	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Not Nice
Agile	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Clumsy
Energetic	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unenergetic
Agreeable	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Disagreeable
Violent	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Calm
Active	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Inactive
Delicate	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Rough
Lively	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Tired
Needed	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unneeded
Skillful	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unskillful
Funny	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Serious
Known	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unknown
Impressive	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Unimpressive
Hard	<input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/> : <input type="checkbox"/>	Soft

### Attitudes Towards Play Scale

Please rank the items below from 1 to 3, beginning with the one that you think is the most important and ending with the one that you think is the least important:

- ☐ to play soccer fairly
- ☐ to play soccer as well as I am able
- ☐ to beat my opponent in soccer

Do you feel that there is a conflict (a difference which causes you to feel uncomfortable) between your social self and your competitive/athletic self?

☐ yes    ☐ no

Please rate the amount of conflict that you experience on a scale from one to five, one representing no conflict and five representing a great deal of conflict:

☐ 1    ☐ 2    ☐ 3    ☐ 4    ☐ 5

Do you feel that women who play soccer receive negative reactions from their friends, peers or society?

☐ yes    ☐ no

Please rate how you think that you played today on a scale from one to five, one representing an excellent level of play and five representing a poor level of play.

☐ 1    ☐ 2    ☐ 3    ☐ 4    ☐ 5

What was the result of your game today?

☐ win    ☐ tie    ☐ loss

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## FOOTNOTES

1. This author is aware that these results may be somewhat ambiguous due to the fact that the numbers of subjects within one group may have been more than double the number of subjects within a comparison group on the Tukey-B post hoc analyses.